Re-interpreting English for Academic Purposes in a trinational Bachelor's degree in Business Administration.

by

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Declaration

I declare that “Re-interpreting English for Academic Purposes in a trinational Bachelor's degree in Business Administration” is my own original piece of work, that I am the author/owner thereof. I have not previously submitted a copy of this entire work, or part of it, at any university for obtaining any qualification.

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Abstract

This study investigates the conceptualisation of the English curriculum in a trinational and trilingual Bachelor's programme in Business Administration shared between France, Germany and Switzerland, and seeks to understand the influences that have led to the curriculum taking its current form. A challenge confronting the study is that there are conflicting notions of best practice, even if one accepts that the curriculum should include some element of academic language support, or preparation for the world of work. In order to shed light on this issue, the literature review investigated trinational language policy in respect of macro (supranational), meso (national and regional) and micro (institutional) levels. This approach itself raised a further question, namely whether the language policy landscape would reveal consistent development of policy from level to level. To address these questions, the study considered two data sets, firstly relevant documents from the language policy landscape and secondly English curricula from the trinational Bachelor's programme in Business Administration. Significant themes identified from the policy review were used as themes that informed a content analysis of the English language curricula in the trinational programme. It was revealed that in the trinational context, the existence of a coherent policy continuum was doubtful, and that other factors may have influenced the conceptualisation of the curriculum, including policies such as the Bologna Declaration which were not primarily intended to apply to language issues. To investigate another possible influence on the language curriculum, the study turned its attention to teacher agency. Teacher agency was revealed to be a de facto influence on the language curriculum at micro level. Where institutional policy is concerned, it has been argued that micro-level language planning has received comparatively little critical attention and that it should therefore be the object of further research.

Opsomming

Hierdie studie ondersoek die konseptualisering van die Engelse kurrikulum in 'n trinasionale en drietalige BA in Besigheidsadministrasie gedeel tussen opvoedkundige instellings in Frankryk, Duitsland en Switserland, en probeer om die invloede wat gelei het tot die huidige vorm van die kurrikulum te verstaan. 'n Uitdaging vir die studie is dat daar teenstrydige begrippe van beste praktyk bestaan, selfs as 'n mens aanvaar dat die kurrikulum sekere elemente van akademiese taalondersteuning of voorbereiding vir die wêreld van werk behoort te bevat. Om lig op hierdie kwessies te werp, het die literatuuroorsig trinasionale taalbeleid op makro- (supra), meso- (nasionale en plaaslike) en mikro- (institusionele) vlakke ondersoek. Hierdie benadering roer 'n verdere vraagstuk aan, naamlik of die taalbeleidveld konsekwent beleidontwikkeling van vlak tot vlak openbaar. Om hierdie vrae aan te spreek, het die studie twee groepe data ontleed, eerstens relevante dokumente uit die taalbeleidveld en tweedens Engelse kurrikula uit die trinasionale BA-program in Besigheidsadministrasie. Beduidende temas wat uit die beleidoorsig geïdentifiseer is, is gebruik as tematiese raamwerk vir 'n inhoudsanalise van die Engelse taalkurrikulums in die trinasionale program. Die analise het aan die lig gebring dat, in die trinasionale konteks, die bestaan van 'n samehangende beleidkontinuum betwyfel kan word; verder kon ander faktore moontlik die konseptualisering van die kurrikulum beïnvloed, insluitend beleide soos die Bologna-verklaring wat nie primêr bedoel was om taalkwessies aan te spreek nie. Om ander moontlike invloede op die taal kurrikulum te ondersoek, het die studie op die onderwyser as agent gefokus. Die aksie van die onderwyser kan 'n praktiese invloed op die taalkurrikulum op mikrovlak hê. Wat institusionele beleid betref, is dit aangevoer dat mikro-vlak taalbeplanning relatief min kritiese aandag ontvang het en dat dit dus die fokus van verdere navorsing behoort te wees.

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- My family, my children and especially my wife Nicole, for tolerating my being physically present, but mentally absent, on so many occasions. Thank you very much.

Dedication

In memory of Jules

Did you ever go to that Bluff house?

Did you ever want just to be there?

In the morning, the dolphins swam in the waves.

Do you remember? You once looked out on the bay.

Remember.

Alphabetical List of Abbreviations

AWL	Academic Word List
BW	Baden-Württemberg, the German state bordering on both France and Switzerland
CBI	Content-Based Instruction
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CEPs	Cultural Emergent Properties (Archer, 1995)
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CoE	Council of Europe, a non-EU body composed of Ministers of Education of Member Countries, with primarily European membership, but also including non-EU countries
CV	Curriculum Vitae
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EC	European Commission (one of the policy-making bodies of the EU)
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EGAP	English for General Academic Purposes
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
ELT	English Language Teaching
EMBP	*Eidgenössischen Berufsmaturitätsprüfungen*;* in English, Swiss Federal Vocational Maturity Examinations (in other words, matriculation certificates with vocational subjects)
FHG	*Fachhochschulgesetz,* in English, University of Applied Sciences Law
FL	Foreign Language
GFME	German Federal Ministry of Education
ESAP	English for Specific Academic Purposes
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
ET 2020	Education and Training 2020, a policy document of the EU
EU	European Union
GV	Grammar and Vocabulary
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HFKG	*Hochschulförderungs- und Koordinationsgesetz*; in English*, 'Higher Education Development and Co-ordination Law'

IUT	*Institut universitaire de Technologie*;* translated in English as 'University Institutes of Technology'
LAP	Language for Academic Purposes
LEP	Language Education Policy
LHG	*Landeshochschulgesetz,* State Law of Higher Education Institutions, Baden-Württemburg*
LP	Language Policy
LSP	Language for Specific Purposes
NZZ	*Neue Zürcher Zeitung,* a German-medium Swiss newspaper
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PEPs	People Emergent Properties (Archer, 1995)
RDD	(European Union) regulations, directives and decisions
SBFI	*Staatssekretariat für Bildung, Forschung und Innovation**; in English, 'Swiss Federal Ministry of Education, Research and Innovation'
SDE	Swiss Federal Department of Education
SEPs	Structural Emergent Properties (Archer, 1995)
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
TEU	Treaty on European Union
TFEU	Treaty on Functioning of European Union
TMO	*Trinationale Metropolregion Oberrhein*, Trinational Metropolitan Region Upper-Rhine*
TP	Trinational Programme, the pseudonym adopted for the trinational Bachelor Degree in Business Administration which is the context for this study.
UAS	University of Applied Sciences; translated as *Fachhochschule** in German
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

* Translations by the author

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1.0 Re-interpreting English for Academic Purposes in a Trinational Bachelor's Degree in Business Administration

1.1 Background of the study

The motivation behind this research arose in the context of my work as an English lecturer at a University of Applied Sciences (UAS) in Switzerland. Established in 2007, the UAS aims '...to meet professional needs in education, research and consulting.... its high quality graduate, postgraduate and continuing education focuses on applied knowledge' (Institution website, 2013)[1]. The UAS, or *Fachhochschule* as it is known in German, is required by Swiss legislation (*Fachhochschulgesetz*, 1995:3) to take this approach, which is intended to prepare UAS graduates for qualified employment. In terms of the Bologna agreement (1999: 3), of which Switzerland is a signatory, Bachelor's degrees should in any case 'be relevant to the European labour market as an appropriate level of qualification'.

The author is employed as an English lecturer in a trilingual and trinational Bachelor programme, in which students study in France, Germany and Switzerland, in French, German and English respectively. Each year, approximately 20 students per country are admitted to the programme and are awarded a Bachelor's degree by all three universities on graduation. On a revolving basis, the students spend two semesters in each country in the trinational area, which is illustrated in Figure 1.1.

The Bachelor programme has a strong vocational focus, since the three participating institutions traditionally undertake to prepare their students for employment. As will be seen in the next chapter, the importance of preparing students for future employment is laid out in the educational policy of all three countries. The pragmatic focus of the

[1] For legal reasons, the institution and affiliated schools will not be referred to by name.

trinational Bachelor programmes is accentuated by the fact that after each semester, students are required to complete a ten-week internship at a local firm. Referring to the advantages of an education with a practical focus, a high-profile German magazine (*Die Welt*, 2015) has recently argued that *Fachhochschule* (UAS) graduates should not be viewed as inferior to university graduates, maintaining that UAS students are better equipped for a variety of fields such as health care, sport, the hotel industry, advertising and marketing, where practical skills are immediately necessary.

Figure 1.1 A simplified view of the trinational region

Furthermore, the article notes that UAS courses are able to more quickly adapt course content to innovations in technical fields such as IT. It also claims that whereas graduates with Bachelor's degrees from German universities still earn slightly better than their counterparts from UASs, UAS Bachelor graduates in Switzerland actually earn more than university graduates at that level. Furthermore, the article correctly states that UAS graduates are now being employed in prestigious consulting firms

such as McKinsey; in fact, an alumnus of the trinational programme and former student of mine is currently employed there.

In general, therefore, it is safe to say that vocational education is well-established in Switzerland and Germany, and enjoys a status similar to traditional academic education. In France, the *Institut universitaire de Technologie* (IUT), a rough equivalent of a *Fachhochschule*, has existed since 1966 (*Legifrance*, 2013). The IUTs are also well-established in the French Higher Education landscape, therefore, but differ from the German and Swiss UAS in that they are affiliated with a traditional academic university. For example, the French campus of the trinational degree programme is an IUT and is effectively a branch of a local French university.[2]

Within this trinational setting, the fabric of the local English curriculum acquires form, and it appears that this fabric is obliged to include strands of quite different material. Firstly, there is the focus on vocational education which all three institutions seem to have in common. In addition, students receive a Bachelor's degree from all three participating institutions, which suggests an academic focus in addition to the vocational one. Moreover, the curriculum has to accommodate students and staff with different educational and national backgrounds, and in the case of the students, varying levels of English competence. Such an undertaking, namely drawing up a syllabus for a trinational group of students with differing levels of competence, is bound to encounter some difficulties. For instance, the English Department has in the past set out to deal with varying levels of English competence by allocating students into three streams named after and supposedly aligned with CEFR levels (B2, C1 and C2), a practice Page and Valli (1990: 1) refer to as differentiation, warning that differentiation should not lead to discrimination.

Beyond the challenges posed by the trinational setting, Pacheco (2012:8) identifies what he terms as an 'identity crisis' affecting curricula in general. Pinar (2012:4) agrees, referring to a curriculum as a 'complicated conversation' between parties with dissimilar interests, for example policy makers and institutions. In addition, Pinar points out that schools have to accept that modern curricula have economic goals,

[2] For legal reasons, the institution and affiliated schools will not be referred to by name.

posing a challenge for institutions with an academic focus. The curriculum understood in this sense clearly has to cater for diverging interests, and this study will therefore attempt to interpret how these interests interact and, through their interaction, shape the English syllabus.

1.2 Motivation for the Research

The trinational degree has existed for some ten years, and its English programme along with it, yet there has not been a concerted attempt by the English department to gain an overview of, or critically reflect on, its curricula. Due to the nature of the degree, there are three English streams traditionally aligned with CEFR levels (B2/C1, C1, C2) and, due to the supposed differences in the ability of these classes, teachers are given relative autonomy when designing their English syllabus. Experience suggests that it is common for teachers to pursue differing goals in the three English streams. Although a standard curriculum was introduced in 2013 (see Chapter 5, Figure 5.4), it served more as a suggestion than a requirement for the English team. This study will therefore attempt to investigate the conceptualisation of the English syllabus, in order to allow for critical reflection on it. To what extent, for example, does the curriculum reflect policy made at higher (macro or meso) levels? On the other hand, to what extent is it conceivably influenced by other factors?

The primary goal of this study is to re-interpret the local English syllabus, and in particular shed new light on the current syllabus by arriving at a better understanding of the forces that have shaped it. Let us imagine for argument's sake that the local English syllabus theoretically must cover at least two key areas, namely preparation for employment (students study business management, so their studies have a commercial focus in any case) and secondly, English for Academic Purposes (EAP), since a third of their studies are English-medium (3rd and 6th semester). It will be of some interest to determine how the local English department interprets the task of preparing students for employment, and whether the local English curriculum contains elements of EAP. Nevertheless, despite their supposed importance, both of these 'key areas', as I have called them above, are problematic, and difficult to define in a satisfactory manner.

The applied, vocational focus of all participating institutions seems to require that English lecturers at the UAS should take a practical approach, and attempt to offer a course which will be meaningful for students' future careers. This would also be the pedagogical approach favoured by Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which is currently the dominant approach in English-language teaching (e.g. Canale & Swain, 1980, Nunan, 1987; Jacobs and Farrell, 2003; Richards, 2006; Magnan, 2007, Kramsch, 2014), and focuses on addressing perceived student needs. A CLT-influenced English syllabus in the context of the trinational bachelor's degree might therefore include content preparing students for employment and also for studying content (business) subjects in English.

However, a practical, CLT-related approach encounters certain difficulties when it comes to implementation. Even within a particular discipline such as Business Management, it is difficult to anticipate the future demands of the labour market and/or students' development. Another problem is that the English lecturer may not be specialized in the particular field of the degree programme; i.e. Business Administration. Generating specialised materials for the English class therefore remains a challenge. Moreover, including EAP in the syllabus raises similar issues. Since the English teacher may not be specialised enough to deal with 'content' courses, a case could be made for teaching general EAP. Hyland (2006: 8 – 12), refers to English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) in this sense, and contrasts it with English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). Proponents of the EGAP approach will argue that English teachers lack the expertise to teach discipline-specific English courses (e.g. Spack, 1988), and that they should concentrate a 'common core' of skills or language forms in their lessons. On the other hand, the ESAP approach would maintain that this does not meet students' needs to a satisfactory extent and, secondly, that it has not been proven that students need a 'common core' of language in order to deal with the subject-specific lexis (Hyland 2006: 8 – 12).

Those seeking to include EAP in the English syllabus have further issues to address. For instance, Hyland (2006: 22) contrasts pragmatic and critical approaches. The pragmatic focus has its apologists (Swales, 1990; Allison, 1996; Dudley-Evans, 1997) but has been criticised by proponents of critical literacy (e.g. Pennycook, 1997; Benesch, 2001; Wallace, 2002), who emphasise that EAP sustains multiple literacies,

and should not be reduced to 'vulgar pragmatism' (Pennycook, 1997). Benesch (2001:39) acknowledges that a critical approach does not exclude a pragmatic focus, even when it has a transformational agenda; she also recommends 'linked' courses, where language instruction is co-ordinated with content, presumably a form of ESAP.

Benesch's (2001: xvi) call for professional practice that is both critical and pragmatic has been echoed by others (Cherryholme, 1988; Swales, 1990; Allison, 1996; Dudley-Evans, 1997; Hyland, 2006). However, the question arises as to what extent these aims can be simultaneously achieved, or whether they may be in conflict with each other. Furthermore, both approaches (pragmatic or critical) have issues of their own. As Lillis (2003) and Baldauf (2006) point out, a weakness of the critical approach is that it has not developed a pedagogy; it questions existing practices, but does not offer the practitioner an obvious alternative. However, a pragmatic focus is not simple to conceptualise either, since business studies can lead students to a variety of careers, the needs of which cannot be easily anticipated. Finally, in my professional context, the notion that language courses should be separate from content courses is well-entrenched: management seek to avoid duplication of material, which students have complained about in the past. This 'language-only' approach makes use of many of the arguments made in favour of EGAP (English for General Academic Purposes) as described by Hyland (2006). To summarise, it is in my view not easy for the local English teacher practitioner to achieve the right balance between a critical or pragmatic, or a general or specific EAP.

In the preceding paragraph, it was suggested that EAP has aims which are not necessarily complementary, nor easily achieved. In addition to these challenges, the EAP course being researched here is offered in the context of a Bachelor programme which is offered under conditions which to the best of my knowledge are not replicated at any other university: the degree is offered in three languages, and on a trinational basis, and these aspects must also be considered in the research. It has been suggested (O'Sullivan, 2001; Wallace, 2002; Sato, 2009; Hu, 2010; Chang, 2011) that CLT is culturally specific and may clash with traditions of national pedagogy. It remains to be seen, therefore, to what extent a CLT approach, which experience suggests is generally the pedagogy practiced in the English department, is suitable in this unique (trilingual, trinational) context.

Besides the issues mentioned above (preparation for work, EAP, specific local context), the concept of the local English syllabus may be influenced by other factors. Baldauf (2006) refers to language planning and policy (in simple terms, recommendations about what should be taught) at various levels, nationally, internationally and also institutionally. He states (2006: 157) that micro-level (institutional) language planning requires more research, since policies adopted at the national level can meet with resistance at the micro level, at least in the sense that they are 'interpreted' to conform to local needs. It is therefore of interest to this study to determine what form higher-level (macro and meso) language policy takes in the local context, whether this has had an influence on the local English syllabus, and whether teachers at micro level implement this or resist it in some way. Baldauf recognises the existence, and relevance, of decision-making at the institutional level. In the context of teachers as local decision-makers, I wish to refer to the philosophy of Archer (1995), who argues that individuals, in combination with other forces, can bring about social change through their actions. Teachers are, after all, not automatons who simply enforce curriculum directives received from above; they may have vested interests, such as maintaining (or resisting) the status quo. Archer's philosophical approach will be discussed further in 1.4.1 below.

In order to interpret the local (trinational) English syllabus, it follows that we first have to know what the original concept was/is. My status as an insider with twelve years' experience teaching English in the programme will hopefully provide me with useful insights in this case. Policy statements can normally be found in public documents, but what actually goes on at classroom level is not always public knowledge. In Baldauf's (2006) terms, policy can be overt (public and official) or covert, the latter especially at the micro level since local practices may not be known to a wider audience. Furthermore, Barton (1994) emphasises that literacy practices are influenced by a hierarchy of influences, or power relations, and states that literacy researchers need to arrive at an '...understanding of the process of power in the society they are studying, and to take a critical approach in the sense of making visible the power relations that are often hidden' (1994:52). Therefore, public documentary resources may not present a complete account of influences on language policy, and

in this sense my status as an insider may be helpful in bringing relevant internal documents to light.

1.3. Statement of the Research Focus

Due to the locations of the participating institutions, the degree programme is trinational. Using Baldauf's (2006) concept of language planning as a convenient point of departure, the study will undertake to consider language policy in France, Germany and Switzerland. Baldauf argues (2006: 150-157) that language policy can be made at macro (international), meso (national and regional) and micro (institutional) (2006:157). Therefore, this study will firstly consider international (macro), and national and regional (meso) language policy in France, Germany and Switzerland, particularly where it pertains to higher (tertiary) education. Higher-level language policy, the nature of which has yet to be determined for the local (trinational) context, can be conceived in a vertical sense, in the sense that higher-level policy can 'trickle down' to lower levels. Additionally, due to the existence of international standards in language teaching, certain 'horizontal' standards exist, which may not represent official language policy but are in any case worth considering in the study due to their perceived influence (e.g. CEFR, CLT).

It is of key interest to the study to determine the extent to which there is an existing and coherent language policy in respect of the three policy levels. (If there is, it may shed light on the CLT-related issues outlined above). Language policy at institutions with a similar background will be included in the research.

To summarise, this project is confronted with the following overarching research question: How are English-language support courses conceptualised in the local trinational context?

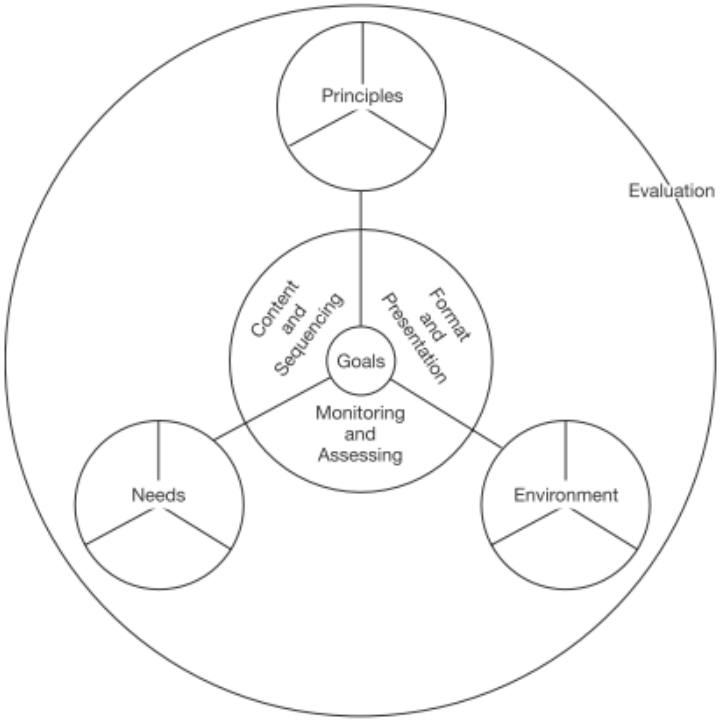
This question is approached by answering the following sub-questions:

- What implications do policies at the macro, meso and micro level have for the conceptualisation of English-language teaching curricula?

- How do notions of best practice in English-language teaching influence this conceptualisation?
- What evidence can be found for the agency of teachers in the implementation of the curriculum?

For the sake of clarity, it is worth pointing out that this study is not a curriculum evaluation in the conventional sense, but more an attempt to clarify what influences led to the current concept of the curriculum. The re-interpretation referred to in the title of this study therefore refers to an improved understanding of the curriculum and the forces that shaped it, not an evaluation thereof. In a sense, this study may provide information that might inform a later curriculum evaluation, but in any case more information is required for a curriculum evaluation to be carried out. Nation and Macalister (2010) propose a model (see Figure 1.2) of curriculum evaluation in which the Environment (local situation of learners and teachers), Needs (learner lacks, wants and necessities) and Principles (pedagogical considerations) all need to be assessed before the goals of a course can be (re-)set.

Figure 1.2 Aspects of Curriculum Evaluation according to Nation and Macalister (2010)



In general terms, this study will primarily refer to the Environment aspect of the English syllabus, and also some (pedagogical) Principles. However, of the three elements Nation and Macalister include in their Environment category (students/teachers/situation), this study will deal more with the situation (e.g. policy landscape, existing English curriculum) and the teachers, than with the students.

The role of teachers in shaping the curriculum is a point of key interest for this study. Baldauf (2006) points out that micro level language planning has not been sufficiently researched; in the local context, the notion of teacher agency in the trinational programme context has not been explored. Teacher agency plays a role both in Baldauf's concept of policy ecology, and also, I would suspect, in the way the local English syllabus is constructed. Furthermore, the nature of the documentary data should be considered: in the case of the English syllabi and curricula, these have been created by teachers, not students. Therefore a focus on teacher agency appears to recommend itself.

Curriculum evaluation has also been described (UNESCO, 2015) as 'the process of making value judgements about the merit or worth of a part or the whole of a curriculum.' Nevertheless, it is not the goal of this study to make value judgements about the merit of the trinational degree's English-language support curriculum; in strict terms, it lacks the tools to do so, since it is not undertaking to assess student needs, in any case a key aspect of curriculum evaluation. Rather, the study is concerned with the form the English curriculum has taken, the environment which has shaped it, and the decision-making processes that informed it. To put the idea of teacher agency into its appropriate context, Archer's (1995) conceptualisation of agency and other factors bringing about social change, will be discussed in the following section. It is thus hoped that an understanding of the local language ecology (Haugen, 1972; Spolsky, 2004; Baldauf, 2006) can be reached.

1.4 Research methodology

Archer's (1995) concept of emergent properties, in particular Structure, Culture and Agency, will be used to analyse the curriculum. In order to add rigour to the study, the study will first carry out a content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005) of the

documentary data, the results of which will then analysed using Archer's concepts. According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1278), content analysis is defined as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns”. It is accepted that content analysis exists in various forms, and can support rigorous qualitative and quantitative analysis (Babbie and Mouton, 2001, Hsieh and Shannon, 2005, Elo and Kyngäs, 2007).

Content analysis of any kind normally includes a number of basic steps (Kaid and Wadsworth, 1989; Hsieh and Shannon, 2005): (i) developing the research questions; (ii) selecting the sample for analysis; (iii) defining the categories to be applied; (iv) applying the coding process; (v) establishing trustworthiness; and (vi) analysing the results of the coding process.

This research used an approach described by Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1281) as *directed content analysis*, which seeks to ‘validate or extend conceptually a theoretical framework’. In other words, the data is compared with an existing conceptual framework. Therefore, existing conceptual categories are admitted, which the data can support, or not support. A conventional content analysis, however, is not able to detect themes that are not present in the textual sources (2005: 1282). The directive approach will move through the six steps above as follows:

(i) Developing the research questions

How are English-language support courses conceptualised in the trinational Bachelor programmes, and what factors influenced this conceptualisation?

(ii) Selecting the sample for analysis

An adaptation of Baldauf’s (2006) interpretation of policy levels was used to analyse language policy at various levels: macro level refers to international level, meso refers to national and regional policy, e.g. of the German states, and micro refers to institutional level. At macro (international) level, the research considered international agreements relating to tertiary education and/or language policy, such as the Bologna declaration (1999). At meso level, Swiss, French and

German policy documents, for instance the Swiss *Fachhochschulgesetz* (1995), were considered. At micro level, policy documentation at institutional level will be referred to, with a specific focus on curriculum design. Influential trends in the literature, and common ELT concepts, e.g. the CEFR, were also referred to. Themes from the policy review will be used in the content analysis of a second data set, a collection of English language syllabi and curricula used in the trinational programme.

(iii) Defining the categories to be applied

To define the categories to be analysed, the content analysis firstly defined major concepts arising from the policy review (e.g. EGAP/ESAP/vocational focus in official language policy/CEFR). These were grouped under key terms (coding).

(iv) Applying the coding process

The syllabi and curricula (curriculum documents) were subjected to close reading to search for material relating to codes developed in step three above. Concepts that could not be coded, or grouped under a key term defined in (iii) above were re-examined and put into a new group to describe the influence it represents. This was necessary, since the EAP research published at English-medium universities may not reflect realities in the local (trinational) context. The inclusion of internal documents could give the study an opportunity to uncover 'hidden power relations', in Barton's (1994: 52) terms, or 'covert language planning' in Baldauf's terms, in other words non-public influences on the conceptualisation of English courses.

(v) Establishing trustworthiness

The themes developed in the policy review, as well as the content analysis, ultimately represent a subjective interpretation of the data. Nevertheless, I attempted to add rigour to the analysis by mapping links between data and themes in a matrix (Graneheim and Lundman, 2004). Miles et al (2013: 108) have argued that 'you know what you display', in other words that which can be displayed can be presented more transparently and convincingly. The validity of

the links made in the matrix were then subjected to scrutiny by English-teaching colleagues in a member check. Finally, I undertook to tease out hidden aspects of the data by using a critical approach inspired by the philosophical approach known as Critical Realism, and will refer in particular to the work of Archer (1995). A brief introduction to this school of thought is given below, but my decision to use this approach derives from Barton's (1994) argument that literacy practices are underpinned by hidden power relations, and these relations should be exposed. In my view, this complements the content analysis and will hopefully illuminate the conclusions it makes.

(vi) Analysing the results of the coding process

The influences identified through the grouping/coding process will be analysed, particularly in respect of which influences, if any, were not anticipated in the international literature and, secondly, whether some influences appear more dominant than others, for example by their representation in both public and internal documents.

1.5 Data Collection

The research approach will essentially deal with two data sets. The first data set is represented by language policy at the meso, macro and micro level in a vertical sense, and current ideas of best practice in ELT in a horizontal sense. Themes or key issues arising from the vertical and horizontal review, so to speak, will be used as preliminary codes in a content analysis of TP English-language support curricula, which represent the second data set. These two data sets will be treated separately since they should not in strict terms be conflated: whereas the first data set is derived from external, publicly available documents describing international and national language policy, the second set is an internal collection of English language support curricula which until now have not been in the public domain. Punch (2009: 159) points out that schools produce large amounts of documentary data, most of which is overlooked by researchers. According to Elo and Kyngäs (2007:114), an advantage of content analysis is that ‘large volumes of textual data and different textual sources can be dealt with and used in corroborating evidence’. This textual data will be used to

engage in critical reflection on language planning and practice at the researcher's institution. My status as an insider gives me access to documentary data which is not in the public domain, and which therefore can hopefully add to the quality of the research. Further data was collected in the member check, where staff members' responses were recorded using a 5-point Likert scale.

1.6 Critical Approach as theoretical framework

To add critical depth to the content analysis, this study intends to use insights provided by the philosophy known as 'critical realism'. It seems appropriate here to briefly consider the main ideas of critical realism, in particular those proposed by Roy Bhaskar (1975, republished in 2008) and Margaret Archer (1995). It is difficult to summarise the key ideas of two such prolific authors, but the short summary that follows will attempt to capture some relevant themes.

Though Bhaskar's ideas have changed somewhat since his first publications in the 1970s, it is possible to give a brief overview of the fundamental views he holds. In very simple terms, he proposes three key ideas, the first of which is that reality is stratified into three key domains: the *empirical*, the *actual* and the *real*. A useful summary of these domains has been provided by Priestley (2011: 228):

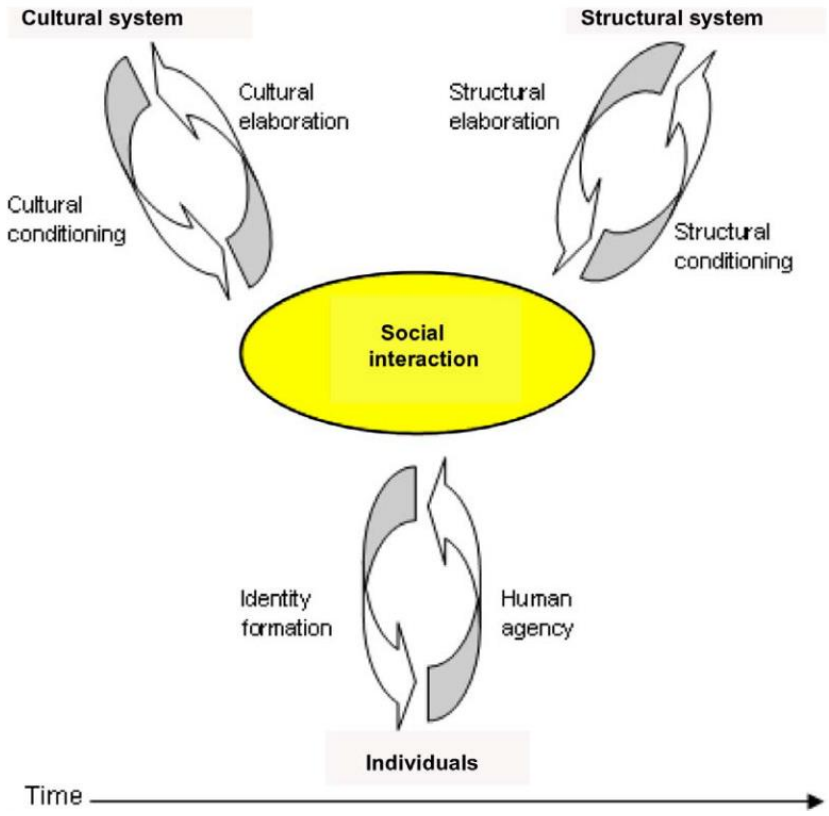
> (1) the empirical, or that which is experienced; (2) the actual, or that which occurs (in other words events and entities); and (3) the real, comprising underlying mechanisms with causal properties.

The second tenet of Bhaskar's philosophy is that society is stratified into layers with varying degrees of power or social influence, and the third is that social mechanisms, and indeed reality itself, exist whether we are conscious of them or not (Priestly, 2011: 228). Archer (1995) further developed this idea of reality to state that social structures are real, and over time will act upon, and be acted upon, by social agents, the people involved in these structures. In particular, Archer (1995:14) maintains that social structures and agents interact with each other and have a causal relationship. In other words, one may influence the development of the other in an ongoing, reciprocal pattern over time:

> Such autonomous properties [i.e. agents and structures] exert independent causal influences in their own right and it is the identification of these causal powers at work which validates their existence…

These structures are distinct from each other and 'irreducible' (Archer, 1995: 14) to each other. A key point for the purposes for this study is again that power relations, manifesting as agents or structures, may not be immediately obvious, suggesting that diligence must be exercised in order to detect them. Another point to note here is the term Archer uses to refer to the mutually causal relationship between structure and agency, that is, emergent properties (Archer, 1995; Cruickshank, 2013). Archer (1995) categorises emergent properties in three forms: cultural emergent properties, (CEPs), structural emergent properties (SEPs), and people emergent properties (PEPs). As represented in Figure 1.3, Priestly (2011: 229) has attempted to illustrate the interplay between these three properties:

Figure 1.3 Priestley's (2011) illustration of the forces driving social change as conceptualised by Archer (1995)



The influence of critical realism on research in the social sciences appears to have been considerable: Piiparinen (2006:425) goes so far as to say that critical realism's influence on the social sciences is equivalent to Copernicus' influence in the natural sciences. It is acknowledged that critical realism allows for the notion of ontology (a theory of reality) where this was previously problematic in several academic discourses (e.g. Piiparinen, 2006; Thompson and Harley, 2012; Boughey and Niven, 2012). Where discourse analysis, for example, maintains that there is no social reality outside discourse, critical realism maintains that there is a real world independent of what is talked about or observed, although it is quite willing to acknowledge the relevance of both (Bhaskar, 2008; Thompson and Harley, 2012). At the risk of oversimplifying, critical realism builds a bridge between the empiricism of the natural sciences and critical theory. Roberts (2014: 1) notes that:

> Critical realism has been an important advance in social science methodology because it develops a qualitative theory of causality which avoids some of the pitfalls of empiricist theories of causality.

One of Bhaskar's key concerns is that one should resist the temptation to stratify the world into neat categories, since what happens in one dimension may influence what happens in another. In simple terms, there may be influences on the present state of events that cannot be immediately observed, though they may be accounted for in other ways. This ties in with Baldauf's insistence on analyzing policy at the macro, meso and micro levels in an attempt to determine the way in which macro policies require action and are acted upon at the meso and micro levels.

In this context of this study, the content analysis of English syllabi will represent empirical, i.e. observable data; it is hoped that a critical realist approach will situate this data in the context of power operations, or simply put, in terms of the factors that really shape the English syllabus. Bhaskar suggests (2002:7) that we should not be content with empirical observations alone but also try to understand what is not immediately obvious and may 'generate' the pattern of events. This corresponds with the concerns of this study, which has the goal of arriving at a deep understanding of local practice. Pennycook (2010: 32) argues that it is best

> …to use language as a local practice to understand the material and political consequences of language use. Nor can we arrive at an understanding of local language practices through external, objective analysis, since local language practices have to be understood perspectivally.

Therefore, my status as an insider may be useful to shed light on local language practices, and this study attempts to go beyond an objective analysis to give a critical interpretation of the forces that shape the thesis. It would however be a mistake to assume that critical realism rejects empiricism out of hand: rather, it attempts to go further by contemplating what may be behind the empirical findings. Where this study is concerned, the empirical findings of the content analysis can be explored in their institutional context when one takes a critical realist approach.

To summarise, the methodology proposed for this study has basically been a content analysis seen from a (theoretical) critical realist perspective which holds that phenomena in the real world are interrelated. Although this echoes Barton's (1994) dictum that the power relations in literacy practices should be revealed, the reader might suspect that critical realism remains a theoretical perspective, and exactly how these hidden power relations should be explored is not immediately clear. However, it is not difficult to find a few instances where critical realism has had a practical impact. For instance, Boughey and Niven (2012) use an analytical framework derived from critical realism to evaluate education research in South Africa, allowing them to identify conditions which constrained and enabled research into academic support at South African universities. Secondly, critical realism has given rise to a closely related strand of philosophy, that of social realism (Archer, 1995; Edwards, 2012). In a study of changes in local government in Britain, Horrocks (2011) argues strongly for a careful consideration of social realism, claiming that it provides a methodology for assessing organisational change; furthermore, Kahn (2009) uses a social realist approach to evaluate academic publications. These three case studies demonstrate how the insights of critical/social realism have been implemented, and this suggests that critical realism can also be used to produce a detailed investigation of the conceptualization of English curricula at the local (micro) level.

The focus of this study is on the English curriculum, but I would argue that understanding the curriculum also requires an awareness of the forces that constrain and enable teachers, of which an approach based on Archer (1995) is in my view able to give a convincing account. In a U.S. context, Pinar (2012) describes the status of teachers in arresting terms. He states (2003: 8) that the U.S. teacher's identity has changed from 'factory manager' to 'corporate manager', a positive development. Factory managers, in his terms, are like automatons 'designing and teaching the curriculum in units' that hopefully add up to a logical whole. The corporate manager, on the other hand, adopts a more liberal approach, even introducing minor curriculum changes to allow for varying learning styles, and supports alternative methods of instruction such as peer teaching and small-group work. The corporate model also acknowledges that intelligence is 'multiple in nature' (2003: 7) and social in nature. The corporate manager is more of a 'coach' and less authoritarian than the factory manager.

However, Pinar points out (2012: 38) that in the corporate model, the aims of instruction still serve economic purposes:

> Intelligence is viewed as a means to an end, the acquisition of skills, knowledge and attitudes utilizable in the corporate sector …. I am not suggesting that schools should have no relationship to the economy …. What I do want to point out is that for intelligence to be cultivated in fundamental ways, it must be set free of even corporate goals …. Intelligence is made narrow, and thus undermined, when it is reduced to answers to other people's questions, when it is only a means to achieve a preordained goal.

Pinar frames questions about the identity of teachers, and also what is to be learnt, in very challenging terms. While my study will fundamentally try to situate and explain the interpretation of language support in the trinational English-language support syllabus, it will also pay some attention to the role of the teacher in shaping the curriculum. Does the UAS tradition of vocational education reduce teachers to 'factory managers' who in Pinar's terms are simply putting nuts and bolts on students until they are completely assembled 'products' ready for the world of work?

In the second chapter, I will consider the language policy landscape, in particular the implications of policies at the international (macro) and national and regional (meso) level. Chapter Three will deal with language policy at the institutional (micro) level. In Chapter Four, more details will be given about the methods used in the study. Chapter Five will arrive at findings and analyse them. In Chapter 6, I will draw the conclusion on the basis of the findings.

2.0 An Exploration of European Language Policy: International, National and Regional Levels

2.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to provide an overview of the language policy background of a six-semester business English course which forms part of a trinational Bachelor's degree. The course is held in France, Germany and Switzerland, and students spend two semesters in each country on a revolving basis (see section 1.1). It therefore seems that a broad, trinational view of language policy would be required to reflect the participation of the three host countries. The issue here is to what extent the participating countries have a language policy at the tertiary level, and whether these policies are in harmony with each other. A further issue is whether the language policies of the respective countries have shaped the conceptualisation of the English-language teaching modules to a significant degree. It cannot be assumed that higher level policy is faithfully reflected in institutional practices; as Spolsky (2004:14) puts it, there is a difference between language ideology, or what people think should be done with language, and language practices, or what people actually do with language. Some investigation of the policy background is required, in order to arrive at a better understanding of what higher-level policy can mean for language teaching practices.

Before the policy landscape can be investigated, however, a brief remark about terminology seems necessary. In the first place, the terms macro, meso and micro represent a convenient shorthand, where macro refers to the international level, meso refers to national and regional policy, e.g. of the German states, and micro refers to the institutional level. This classification should not be seen as self-evident; it is useful in this context, as will be explained below. Next, the issue of exactly what is meant by language policy needs to be defined. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997:3) have the following view of language policy and planning:

> Language planning is a body of ideas, laws and regulations (language policy), rules, beliefs and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening) in the language use in one or more communities.

This definition suggests that language planning is a wider concept that includes language policy as one of its manifestations. Somewhat later, Baldauf (2006: 149)

simplifies this: language policy, he says, is the 'plan', while language planning is the 'plan implementation'. Kaplan (2013) defends the distinction between policy and planning, saying that implementation of language planning can only occur when policy already exists. Shohamy (2007:4) agrees that language policy is generally made explicit through laws and official documents. However, she describes language education policy (LEP) as implementing those decisions in schools and universities (2006:77).

Whereas Baldauf (2006), Baldauf and Chua (2012) and Kaplan (2013) use the terms 'language policy' and 'language planning', others refer to 'curriculum development and implementation' (Dudley-Evans and St Johns, 1998; Council of Europe, 2010; Basturkmen, 2012). The literature therefore uses a variety of terminology, and so a decision needs to be made about which terms are most appropriate for this study. Baldauf (2006:149) claims that language policy is enunciated in documents, often of an official nature (e.g. constitutions, legislation, policy statements, and educational directives), which suggests that language policy is enunciated at the macro (international) and meso (national and regional) level. However, he argues that micro-level planning (i.e. micro implementation of macro/meso language policy) exists, and in some cases micro-level agents may even develop their own language policy (2006:155). In her review of LSP (Language for Specific Purposes) courses in Europe and Australasia, Basturkmen (2012) largely focuses on the role of teachers and university departments in developing course content, and implies that they - who Baldauf (2006) might refer to as micro-level agents) generally develop and implement their curricula independently.

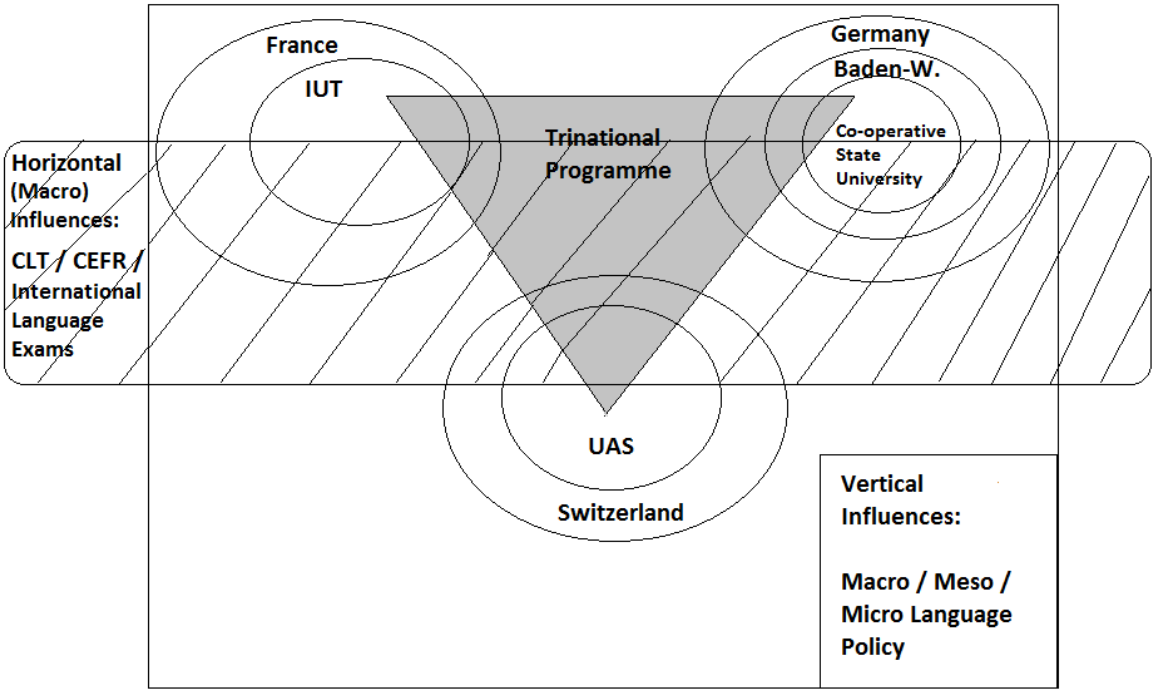
Shohamy (2007) specifically uses the term language education policy (LEP) to refer to policy at the institutional (micro) level. This can be seen as imputing to institutions the ability to develop their own policy. Shohamy goes on to say that this can be deduced implicitly through an examination of de facto practices, a view that bears similarities to Baldauf's (2006) notion of (potentially covert) micro-practices. Expressed in simpler terms, planners and teachers at the departmental level may pursue their own view of which language should be learnt when, and how it should be learnt – they do not simply follow instructions received from the macro and meso level. Consequently, the

term 'curriculum development and implementation' (e.g. Council of Europe, 2010) mentioned in this review of terminology is potentially misleading: one should be careful of assuming that policy is produced at a higher (macro or meso) level and implemented at another, lower (micro or institutional) level.

For the purposes of this chapter, language policy will be defined as legal or official documents in the public realm, specifically at the macro and meso level. The study will not retain the distinction between planning and policy, but will argue that practices at the institutional level represent a kind of de facto policy (Shohamy's language education policy). The inclusion of the meso (national and regional) level is made necessary by the fact Germany's states and Switzerland's cantons have law-making competencies. This chapter will defer a discussion of institutional practices to the next chapter. As mentioned in the first chapter (1.2), the language policy of the English programme's trinational environment has not yet been considered in depth by the English department at my institution, which lends interest to this investigation. A key point of interest in this regard is whether these levels (international, national, and regional) of official policy can operate together harmoniously. Since official language policy of this sort comes from above, so to speak, it will be referred to as a vertical influence for the purposes of this study, as opposed to horizontal influences, which are not official policy but still represent standard practice for English-language teachers.

Horizontal influences can be understood as common standards in English language teaching (ELT) that are influential on an international scale, for example the CEFR, which will be discussed in 2.3.1 below. While these do not reflect official state policy, they nevertheless exert an influence on practitioners. In 2.3.2, I will discuss a dominant ELT pedagogy, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), whose precepts arguably inform much of classroom practice, and hence influence syllabus content. Another influential standard is represented by international language examinations such as those provided by Cambridge ESOL. Figure 2.1 attempts to depict the various vertical and horizontal influences that potentially exert an influence on the trinational English syllabus.

Figure 2.1 Vertical and horizontal language policy influences potentially applying to the trinational English language support programme



In this research the position of the researcher will determine what constitutes macro, meso and micro levels. Identifying international or transnational legislation as macro policy-making in 2.2 and 2.3 above seems relatively unproblematic, since no policy-making can be take place at a higher level. For the purposes of this study, meso is a more difficult concept. To clearly separate meso level from macro (international and supranational) and micro (institutional), I have chosen to regard national and regional policy as representing the meso level, since they are both country-specific (below macro level) but above micro (institutional) level. In fact, as will be seen in 2.4.1 and 2.4.2, regional policy-making in both Germany and Switzerland will be considered in this study (in France, policy-making at regional level is limited due to the strongly centralised political organisation there - see 2.4.3).

It was noted above that language policies were seen as laws and regulations (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997) which were accompanied by ideas, practices, and beliefs, all of

which might influence how this policy is drawn up and implemented. It should also be noted that Baldauf (2006) distinguishes between overt (explicit, planned) and covert (implicit, unplanned) language policy. In this section the focus will be on overt, explicit language policy at the national and regional level in Germany, France and Switzerland, the countries which host the trinational Bachelor course.

Institutional language policy is referred to as Language Education Policy (LEP) by Shohamy (2007). I would argue that this LEP could contain the (possibly covert) micro practices referred to by Baldauf (2006), since institutions may choose not to implement policy set at higher levels (Spolsky, 2004: 8). Micro-level practices are not being considered here, but in Chapter 3. Furthermore, the notion of policy levels is being accepted here in the assumption that it will facilitate an understanding of the ecology of language policy in the local context, i.e. the trinational Bachelor's degree. A very similar approach has been adopted by Baldauf (2006) and also by Fortanet-Gomez (2013) in her wide-ranging review of CLIL in Higher Education. A similar view is taken by Mar-Molinero and Stevenson (2006: 242), who comment that 'any exploration of language policy issues must take into account the multiple levels at which these can be devised and enacted'.

2.2 Vertical Macro Influences: European Language Policy in Higher Education

In this section I intend to focus on language policy trends in Europe, firstly because France and Germany (where two partner institutions hosting the trinational Bachelor programme are respectively based) belong to the European Union. Secondly, all three participating countries are signatories to international agreements such as the Bologna reform, which will be dealt with the next section (2.2.1), and which affects most, if not all, European universities. Section 2.2.2 will focus on the language policy of the European Union, which is necessary since France and Germany are EU members. Section 2.2.3 will consider the language policy of the Council of Europe, an international body concerned with educational matters, and the CEFR, an influential framework developed by the Council of Europe which aims to describe levels of competence in foreign-language learning. While the CEFR was not originally developed by any government as an official policy, it has become influential in

European-language policy and is therefore included in this policy review. I will also argue (2.2.4) that the CEFR is theoretically linked with what is arguably the dominant second- and foreign-language pedagogy at present, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which will be discussed in the context of European-language policy relating to the promotion of language learning (plurilingualism/multilingualism).

The study will firstly focus on the Bologna Declaration; subsequently, attention will be given to the official language policy of the European Union. The Bologna Declaration will be treated separately from the EU because although many of the 28 EU countries were among the original signatories of the Bologna Declaration, by 2012 a total of 47 nations had signed the Bologna Declaration (Vögtle & Martens, 2014:2), making it of more general application, particularly to Switzerland, a non-EU country.

2.2.1 The Bologna Declaration

While the Bologna Declaration (1999) does not specifically refer to language issues, as we will see below, it will be argued that it has significantly impacted the role of language, particularly of English, in education. The Declaration (1999) was a declaration of intent signed by Ministers of Education of 28 European countries. The Declaration's primary objectives can be summarised as follows (1999: 3):

- easily readable and comparable degrees
- adoption of two main cycles (Bachelor's and Master's), where access to the labour market should be possible after the awarding of a Bachelor's degree
- establishment of a common system of credits (ECTS) to promote student mobility
- European co-operation in quality assurance in order to develop comparable criteria and methodologies

Every two years, there have been follow-up meetings of the ministers of the signing countries, the latest of which at the time of writing was in Bucharest (2012). As stated above, Vögtle and Martens (2014:2) note that the Declaration now has 47 signatories and also claim (2014:1) that the influence of the Declaration now extends beyond Europe to the Asia-Pacific area, South America and parts of Africa.

The Bologna Declaration's increasing acceptance is a remarkable phenomenon, even within the European context, seeing as it threatens longstanding traditional structures in some countries, for example Holland (Dittrich et al, 2004), Spain (Räisänen and Fortanet-Gomez, 2008) and Germany (Witte et al, 2008). For instance, Witte et al (2008: 218) identify the Bologna agreement as introducing 'tension' between traditional universities and centres of tertiary learning with an applied focus, specifically *Fachhochschulen* in Germany, *hogescholen* in the Netherlands, and *grand écoles* in France. This tension arose 'regarding their role and status distribution' (2008: 218), since both were able to offer Bachelor's and Master's degrees in terms of the Bologna Declaration. In the context of the trinational programme (TP), the partner institutions jointly offer a Bachelor's degree despite not being traditional universities: they all have their roots in vocationally-oriented colleges with an applied focus. The three partner institutions will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3.

Hedberg (2003:5) offers an explanation for the Declaration's widespread acceptance, arguing that it was fuelled by the perception that European universities were losing their attractiveness for non-European students, and so the document's emphasis on mobility and quality standards was easy to accept. In general terms, mobility in this sense can be understood as the ability of students to transfer from one university to the other during their studies, while the quality aspect would relate to making European universities attractive destinations for European students. Erling and Hilgendorf (2006: 4) claim that in a German context, many skilled graduates in the life sciences are choosing to continue their studies in the United States, and that this could also have been a motive behind the Declaration's supposed intent to make Europe more attractive as a study destination. Lorenz (2006: 6) takes a similar view, but goes a step further by arguing that the Bologna Declaration should be understood in the context of another policy, particularly the Paris Declaration of 1998:

> This Paris Declaration airs serious European concerns about the competitiveness and the global attractiveness of European higher education, especially in comparison to North America and Australia …. The competition on the ever-growing and promising Asian student market is being lost by Europe – with the UK as the only exception. 'The Chinese are coming!' is

> nowadays not meant as a warning in education contexts, but as something (educational) policy makers welcome and want to stimulate – as long as the Chinese are willing to pay, of course. The 'exceptional' success of UK higher education probably explains why the Anglo-Saxon structure [Bachelor, Master] of higher education was accepted in Bologna as the general European model without much discussion.

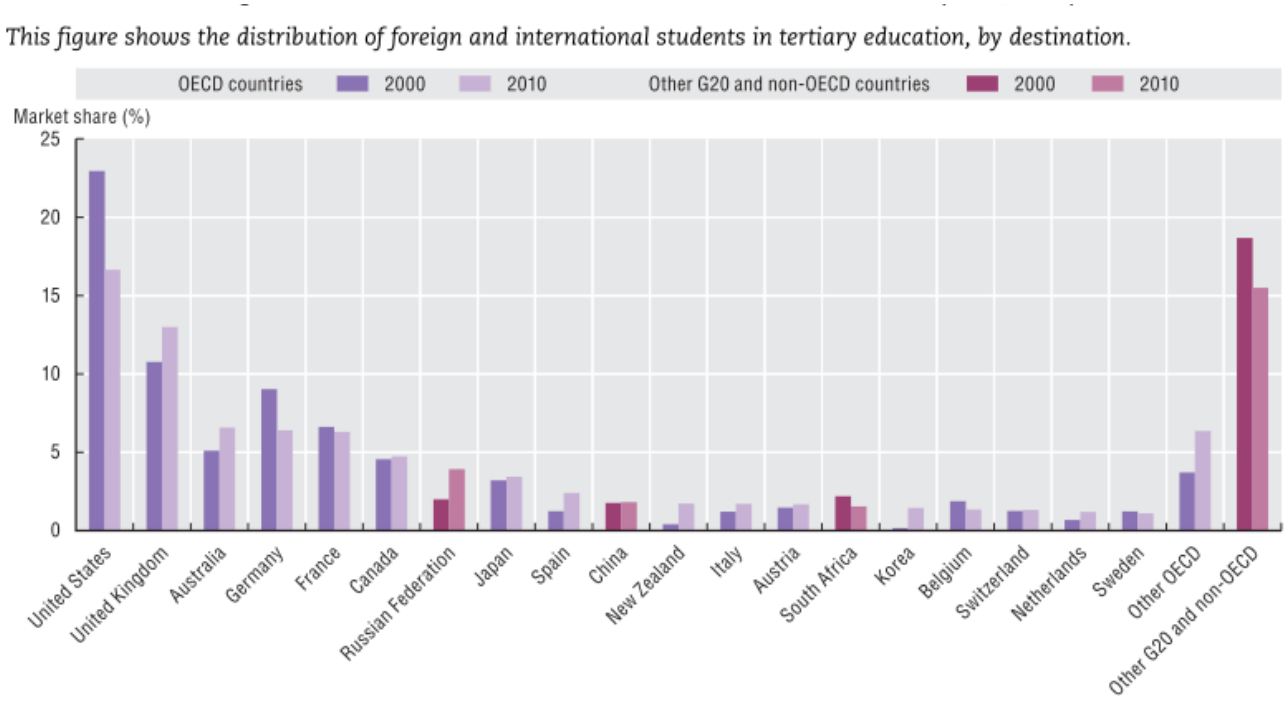
Lorenz's comments are striking in that they offer an explanation why many continental universities suddenly restructured their degree programmes and did things the 'English way'. Whether it is coincidence or not, it appears that European universities post-Bologna have not only been adopting the English Bachelor's-Master's structure, but are also offering more courses in English. It is not clear whether the Bologna Declaration intended this: statements with regard to language policy are absent from the Declaration, a strange oversight since the mobility it propagates must surely lead to students having to cope with unfamiliar language environments (Erling and Hilgendorf, 2006: 270).

This lack of clarity seems to have favoured the development of English as a language of instruction at European HEIs. There is wide agreement that the Bologna Declaration has led to an increase in English-medium courses at European universities, (Coleman, 2006; Phillipson, 2006; Studer et al, 2009; Schomburg and Teichler, 2011). Indeed, Wächter and Maiworm (2008:26) report that whereas in 2002 there were 700 full programmes offered in English at around 400 higher education institutes, this figure had more than tripled by 2006. Crosier et al (2007: 36-48), in a report on the European Higher Education Area, go so far as to link the extent to which universities are internationally oriented with the degree to which they offer courses in English, a fact noted by Van der Walt (2013:73).

Despite the trend towards English, Coleman (2006) reminds us that plurilingualism is enshrined in EU and Council of Europe policies, although in his view English as a language of instruction is threatening the status of local languages at higher education institutions. Similarly, Phillipson (2006: 13) refers to 'diglossic domain loss' in the context of Bologna, and calls for language policy formulation on a European scale. Taking the increase in English-medium programmes into account, one wonders if

there is any correlation between increasing numbers of visiting students in certain countries and the 'Englishization' (Coleman, 2006: 4) of higher education in various countries. The available evidence does not clearly suggest this, however. Figure 2.2, reproduced from a recent OECD report (2012: 24 - 25) indicates that student mobility between countries has been uneven:

Figure 2.2 Student mobility: destinations by country



The membership of the OECD and Bologna nations is not identical, but the Figure 2.2 still raises interesting questions. On the one hand, it is true that three English-speaking OECD countries (U.S., Australia, UK) between them attracted at least 30% of the 4.1 million visiting students worldwide in 2010, and nearly 40% in 2000. But while Bologna countries such as Italy and Spain show slight increases in numbers of visiting students, Germany, France and Belgium show decreases in this period. Studer et al (2009), in a review of English-medium programmes in non-Anglophone Europe, conclude that of the Bologna signatories, Italy, Spain and Portugal offer the lowest number of English-medium courses, whereas Germany, Finland and the Netherlands offer the most (Wächter and Maiworm, 2008: 29-30). In general, while the correlation between English-medium courses and rising numbers of visiting students is tempting to make, the picture suggested by this figure is that English-medium courses

in a non-English environment do not attract great numbers of visiting students, whereas English-medium courses in English-speaking countries do.

It is of interest that in The Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (2010), the EU has committed itself to 'the indivisible, universal values of human dignity, freedom, equality and solidarity' and to 'respecting the diversity of the cultures and traditions of the peoples of Europe' (2010: 3). This can be taken to represent a commitment to equality and diversity of languages. Nevertheless, one notes that this charter is relatively late in the making, since the foundations of the EU were laid over 50 years ago. In other words, international agreements with relevance to education, such as the Bologna Declaration, were set up without the guidance of the Charter, a fact that may have worked against notions of equality and diversity of languages in the Declaration.

A controversial aspect of the Declaration is its concern that access to the labour market should be possible after a Bachelor's degree which is seen by some (Shore and Wright, 2000; Hursh, 2005; Lynch, 2006) to reflect the priorities of a neo-liberal agenda. For example, Lynch refers to 'the trend of neo-liberalisation' in which education serves the needs of the market at the expense of its social and developmental duties. Lorenz (2006) sees economic motives, in particular competition for students, as a motivating factor behind the Declaration, and argues that academic freedom is being compromised by economic considerations and international bodies such as the WTO, which views education as one 'service' among many that can presumably be traded internationally. This aspect of the Bologna Declaration has been subject to challenge – in 2009, students in Switzerland went on strike to protest the fact that their education was no longer free, but subject to a market agenda (Swissinfo, 2009). In the same year, similar protests occurred in Austria and Italy, among other countries (The Times, 2009).

Another factor playing a role in the rapid implementation of the Bologna Declaration which cannot be neglected is the role of the European Commission, which has played an active part in driving the reforms envisaged by the Declaration. It appears that the Commission takes an active interest in the development of Bologna reforms, having recently published a brochure (2012) entitled 'The EU and the Bologna process -

shared goals, shared commitments'. Several observers (Neave, 2003; Keeling, 2006; Phillipson, 2006) have noted the active role the Commission has taken in the implementation of the Bologna Declaration, although the Declaration also applies outside EU borders. As Keeling (2006: 203) points out, the European Commission's interest is unexpected, since education was not mentioned in the original founding treaty of the EU. Furthermore, Neave (2003:150) argues that Commission's involvement has been accompanied by a focus on vocational education or, as he puts it, 'the triumph of the utilitarian, of higher education operating less as a cultural than as an economic institution within a "market mode". Keeling (2006: 207) agrees that the Commission's interpretation of the Declaration has become dominant, specifically in the sense that it sees higher education as 'purposeful' and needing to lead somewhere.

Despite the energetic backing of the Commission, not all signatories to the Declaration have been able to implement the reforms it requires to an equal degree. Räisänen and Fortanet-Gomez (2008) report that while the implementation of the Declaration was easier for British universities due to an existing Bachelor's/Master's structure, Spain had still to begin the process of reform in 2008. Elsewhere, Bologna has created administrative challenges. Dittrich et al (2004: 302) note that the Bologna reform was adopted so enthusiastically in the Netherlands that universities were faced with a dilemma: in terms of a new Dutch law, it was illegal for them to offer Bachelor's or Master's degrees unless they had first been accredited. In Switzerland, I can confirm that the process is reversed: institutions offer a Bachelor's or Master's degree which is then accredited. In general, however, it does appear that the Bologna Declaration has been rapidly implemented; Crosier et al (2007:17) report that while only 52% of European universities had introduced a Bachelor's-Master's-Doctorate structure by 2003, 82% had done so by 2007.

2.2.1.1 Official Reviews of the Bologna Declaration

The official repository of European Law, Eur-Lex (2014), noted that by 2012 the signatories of the Declaration had met seven times to review the progress of the Bologna reform and respond to new developments, which it has done in a series of communiqués named after the city in which the signatories met. The Prague

Communiqué (2001), for instance, dealt with the promotion of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), especially in the sense of making it attractive both to European students and those from other parts of the world. Documentation of all follow-up meetings to Bologna is also made available on EHEA's homepage (EHEA, 2015). The Prague Communiqué also described lifelong learning as a vital feature of the EHEA, in order to promote economic competitiveness. The themes of promoting student mobility, and increasing the competitiveness of the EHEA were prominent in most of the communiqués to follow. The Berlin communiqué, for example, called for increased mobility for students at the doctoral and post-doctoral level. In addition to these themes, later communiqués also focused on quality assurance (in particular Bergen, 2005), and employability (London, 2007; Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve, 2009; Bucharest, 2012).

An obvious point of interest with respect to these follow-up conferences to Bologna is whether any of the communiqués deals with the issue of language learning in detail, something which the original declaration failed to do. In fact, only three of the seven post-Bologna communiqués mention language at all, and even then only in a cursory fashion. The Prague Communiqué (2001), echoed by the Budapest-Vienna Declaration (2010), declared that the EHEA is based on respect for diversity of cultures, languages and higher education systems. This is somewhat ironic, seeing as the Bologna system originally prescribed changes to the structure of degree programmes which often went against established structures in member countries, for example in Spain (Fortanet-Gomez, 2011). The Berlin communiqué (2003) went a bit further, recommending a 'substantial' period of study abroad, with 'proper provision' of language learning so that students 'may achieve their full potential for European identity, citizenship and employability'. Language learning is therefore seemingly linked with increased mobility and employability in the view of the Bologna signatories.

2.2.2 An Introduction to Language Policy of the European Union

The example provided by the Bologna Declaration shows that policies which do not intend to deal directly, or deal only in part, with language issues can be influential in the higher-education landscape. The following review of language policy in the European Union will therefore consider policy documents which are not exclusively

concerned with language where they apply to education policy, language policy and higher education.

Borchardt (2010: 11) describes the EU as a group of states which have:

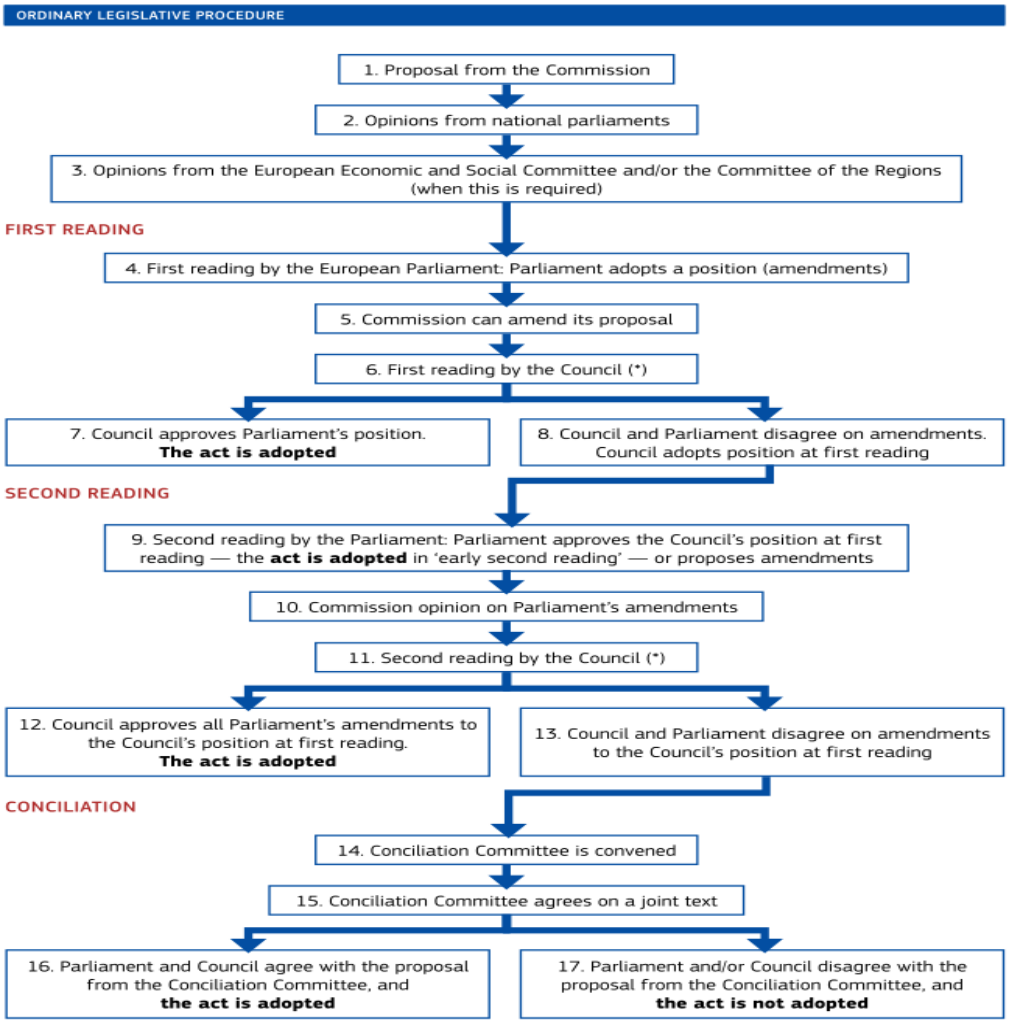
> …ceded some of their sovereign rights to the EU and have conferred on the Union powers to act independently. In exercising these powers, the EU is able to issue sovereign acts which have the same force as laws in individual states.

The process by which nations cede their sovereign rights to the EU is controversial and has not yet been completed; evidence of this is that the United Kingdom and Poland have refused to accept the EU's constitution (Borchardt, 2010: 28), preferring to retain their own. The de facto EU constitution is represented by the Lisbon Treaty (2009), which will be further discussed in 2.2.2.1.

The EU has in essence three separate bodies that are allocated legislative powers, the Council (comprised of the heads of EU states), the Parliament (elected by EU citizens), and the Commission, the executive branch of the EU whose major function is to propose new laws to the Council and the Parliament, which approve their applications (EU, 2013a). An overview of the legislative process, during which the Council and the Parliament have to approve initiatives of the Commission, is provided in Figure 2.3.

In essence, the European Commission appears to be the most active policy-making body of the EU, responsible for both implementing laws and policies and proposing new ones (EU, 2013a). Actual voting takes place in the Council or the Parliament, so that in effect a bicameral system is in place: either the Council or the Parliament can block legislation. As suggested by Figure 2.3, the decision-making process in the EU is rather complex, with legislation going through a number of stages in which all three policy-making bodies are involved.

Figure 2.3 An Overview of the Legislative Process of the European Union (adapted from *How the European Union Works*, 2014)



In legal terms, the EU distinguishes (EU, 2015a) between treaties which apply equally to all countries, but the responsibility of implementing the treaties lies with member states, and EU regulations, directives and decisions (RDD). The European Commission can take steps against member states who have not implemented any aspect of EU law arising from the treaties (EU, 2015b). In the case of EU law, in particular the treaties, it is intended (EU, 2015c) that EU law is equally applicable at all levels: 'EU law – which has equal force with national law – confers rights and obligations on the authorities in each member country, as well as individuals and businesses.' However, RDD (EU regulations, directives and decisions) may not affect all EU states directly, and in some cases only apply to a few (EU, 2015a). EU legislation therefore takes two main forms, with differing degrees of application:

- Treaties, which have equal validity and are equally binding for all member states
- EU Regulations, Directives and Decisions (RDDs), the relevance of which varies from case to case

The most convenient approach to understanding EU language policy therefore appears to be not a focus on the deliberations of the individual law-making bodies, but on the treaties and RDDs, all of which may represent official or de facto language policy. All of the RDDs considered below have equal validity for all member states.

2.2.3 Language Policy in European Treaties

All EU members are bound by the current version of EU constitution, which was ratified in the Lisbon Treaty, 2009 (not to be confused with the Lisbon Strategy, which predates the Treaty and is further discussed in 2.2.2.2 below). The Lisbon Treaty is divided into two sections, each of which are actually treaties in their own right, the *Treaty on European Union* (TEU) and the *Treaty on Functioning of European Union* (TFEU). In its opening articles, the TEU (Articles 3) lays out the basic principles of the EU; concerning languages, the EU:

> shall respect its rich cultural and linguistic diversity, and shall ensure that Europe's cultural heritage is safeguarded and enhanced.

Article 165 of the TFEU is also of relevance:

(Article 165)

> 1. The Union shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organisation of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity.[…]

> 2. Union action shall be aimed at:
>
> – developing the European dimension in education, particularly through the teaching and dissemination of the languages of the Member States
> – encouraging mobility of students and teachers, by encouraging *inter alia*, the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study
> – promoting cooperation between educational establishments [...]

The articles above undertake to protect linguistic diversity (TEU, Article 3), and make the member states responsible for doing so (TFEU, Article 165.1). The EU also encourages mobility of students and teachers (TFEU, 165.2). These treaty articles are by their nature binding for all EU member states and in theory no other policy documents may contradict them. It can therefore be said that promoting linguistic diversity and student and staff mobility are basic elements of EU language policy.

In my view, the powerful role of the member states is outlined in the above excerpt: the EU is committed to linguistic pluralism, and mobility for staff and students, but the responsibility for teaching content, and the organisation of educational systems, rests with the member states. This implies that member states have the right to make their own decision about educational content. In my view, this raises doubts about the capacity of EU institutions at the highest level to directly influence curriculum content. Furthermore, Article 165 is phrased in a somewhat vague manner: the EU sets out to foster the dissemination and teaching of *all* languages of the member states. Perhaps this phrase intends to say that no language should be preferred above others in the curriculum; whatever the case, current reality, especially due to the influence of the Bologna Declaration, appears somewhat different.

2.2.4 Language Policy EU Legislation and other Policy Sources

The survey of EU language policy undertaken here focuses on policy documents produced from 1992 (the year the European Union was founded) to 2014. The survey includes education policy in general, in order to consider policy which might not focus primarily on language, but could affect language policy in a de facto sense. The legislation referred to includes a variety of documents, RDDs made by the Council,

Parliament or Commission, and communications between them that achieve legal status due to their inclusion in the process represented in Figure 2.2. All the documents considered have either been accorded official legal status by the official online repository of European law, EUR-lex (2015), or achieve indirect validation through being a reference point for laws, an example being the Lisbon Strategy (2000).

The landscape of EU language policy is complex. On one hand, a proliferation of documents is produced by the fact that there are three independent policy-making bodies, which comment on each other's publications and may return to earlier publications of their own. Sometimes the bodies act independently; in the case of Resolutions, the Council (European Council, 2015) can make recommendations of its own, and does not depend entirely on the Commission for input. A review of the data revealed that the best way to understand it is by grouping policy documents according to theme; this is especially so because one policy-making body may react to a topic raised by another, or may return to a topic. Bearing this in mind, I would maintain that the list below, represented in Figure 2.3, contains the most important policy statements in respect to language. The information is obtained from EUR-lex, (2015). The policy statements below includes documents that specifically refer to language and also those which have an implicit relevance (the Bologna Declaration was an instance of how implicit relevance can be important).

The main themes in EU language policy will be discussed in greater detail and then summarised in a table (Figure 2.4) later in the chapter.

2.2.4.1 Promoting Multilingualism

In *Language Policy* (2013) the European Parliament states that all children in the EU should learn two foreign languages from an early age. Regarding financial support for the learning of foreign languages, the Parliament refers to EU-funded mobility programmes, for example: Erasmus (higher education), and Comenius (school education). The document also refers to measures set in place to protect the status of minority languages, for example through the founding of an NGO with this purpose.

The European Commission (2005) has set out its strategy for multilingualism as follows:

- to encourage language learning and promote linguistic diversity in society;
- to promote a healthy multilingual economy;
- to give citizens access to European Union legislation, procedures and information in their own languages.

It is significant that the multilingualism strategy echoes commitments made to multilingualism in the EU's constitution (Lisbon Treaty, 2009), which was discussed in 2.2.3 above. In particular, the EU's various policy-making bodies have repeatedly and consistently affirmed their commitment to second- and third-language learning. It is also clear from the legislation that knowledge of English should not preclude the learning of other languages.

I would argue that the use of the CEFR to evaluate foreign-language competence in 2007 (see below) is in effect a measure to promote multilingualism, especially since the Commission undertook a survey to evaluate the level and extent of EU citizens' competencies in second and third languages. This point is pursued below.

2.2.4.2 Support for a Common Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

The Commission proposed a survey (EC, 2007) to establish the level of foreign-language competence in the EU, and submitted the idea to the European Council (see 2.3.3) for approval. The goal of the survey was to measure general language competence in the four skills in all member states, and focused on the first and second 'most taught official languages' of the EU, namely Spanish, Italian, German, French, and English. The survey was based on an instrument measuring language competence in levels A1 - B2 of the CEFR (see section 2.4 below). Ultimately, the final survey (EC, 2011) was carried out in 14 EU countries and 42% of around 54,000 respondents were found to be 'competent' in the first foreign language, but only 25% in the second.

This survey is interesting in at least two senses: it shows the high credibility enjoyed by the CEFR, which will be discussed in more detail below in section 2.3.1, and secondly it suggests that the EU is willing to go to some lengths to ascertain to what extent the goal of 'mother tongue plus two' can be made a reality. The acquisition of two foreign languages is surely a worthwhile goal, but it is conceivable that the 'mother tongue plus two' policy is being counteracted at the tertiary level by the trend towards English-medium courses at the expense of local languages. In this sense, it appears that EU language policy to some extent contradicts itself, with the de facto push towards English ushered in by the Bologna agreement conflicting with the 'mother tongue plus two' initiative (Phillipson, 2006).

2.2.4.3 The identification of critical thinking as a goal of education

The link between language policy and notions of critical thinking may not be immediately clear, but a link is made in the European Parliament's and Council's Recommendation on Lifelong Learning (EUR-lex, 2006b). In order to facilitate such learning, the Recommendation sets out a list of seven Key Competencies, which ' all individuals need for personal fulfilment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment.' The key competencies are therefore viewed as basic skills that everybody should have. The Competencies are (EUR-lex, 2006b: 1):

1. Communication in the mother tongue
2. Communication in foreign languages
3. Mathematical competence and basic competencies in science and technology
4. Digital competence
5. Learning to learn
6. Social and civic competencies
7. Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship
8. Cultural awareness and expression

It is beyond the scope of this study to comment on all the Competencies, but the conceptualisation of language competencies is obviously relevant. The

Recommendation describes the mother tongue as an important facilitator of communication and intellectual activity (2006b: §1):

> Communicative competence results from the acquisition of the mother tongue, which is intrinsically linked to the development of an individual's cognitive ability to interpret the world and relate to others …. A positive attitude towards communication in the mother tongue involves a disposition to critical and constructive dialogue ...

The Recommendation views foreign-language competencies as building on the 'main skills dimension of the mother tongue'. The assumption therefore seems to be that critical skills in the mother tongue are transferable to foreign-language learning. The Recommendation also links foreign-language learning with an appreciation of cultural diversity and intercultural communication (2006b: §2).

The importance of a critical approach is discussed again in the 'Learning to Learn' section. It is a factor that facilitates the assimilation of new knowledge and skills (2006b:§5):

> … effective management of one's learning, career and work patterns, and, in particular, the ability to persevere with learning, to concentrate for extended periods and to reflect critically on the purposes and aims of learning. Individuals should be able to dedicate time to learning autonomously and with self-discipline, but also to work collaboratively as part of the learning process, draw the benefits from a heterogeneous group…

Surely the ability to reflect critically on what is being learnt, and the purpose of what is being learnt, is required for any course of studies at tertiary level. Moreover, I would argue that the link with intercultural communication, and hence with language learning, is made through the reference to 'a heterogeneous group'. It can be argued that learning a foreign language will encourage learners/ students to reconsider the values of their own culture and teach them to view language and culture from a fresh perspective, which can be seen as a kind of critical awareness. Given the situational logic of English-language support classes as the venue of intercultural exchange

(between Germans, French and Swiss), such critical awareness of intercultural issues, and in general a readiness to criticise received wisdom (since it can conceal prejudices), are in my view important requirements for TP students in this study.

2.2.4.4 Language competence as a factor favouring mobility and employability

In a policy known as the Lisbon Strategy (2000), the European Council set itself the ambitious target of 'becoming the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world by 2020', and the European Commission has stated that language learning is vital in this regard (EU, 2013b).

Two concrete statements originally made by the Lisbon Strategy (2000) were that increased digital literacy and standardisation of CVs would improve employability. However, a few years later the Commission appeared to change its focus. In a document entitled 'A coherent framework of indicators and benchmarks for monitoring the Lisbon objectives' (European Commission, 2007), the Commission appears to reset the goals for the higher education sector:

> The benchmarks for assessing the modernisation of higher education are that of devoting at least 2% of GDP (including both public and private funding) by 2015 to modernising higher education and that of increasing by 15% the number of graduates in mathematics, science and technology by 2010. Progress will be measured using the following three core indicators: higher education graduates; transnational mobility of students in higher education; investment in education and training.

Unfortunately, although the Lisbon Strategy is arguably a policy document which makes some specific recommendations, specifically regarding its concern with digital literacy and standardisation of CVs, the excerpt above shows that the Commission seems to have changed its focus to a requirement for more graduates in 'mathematics, science and technology'. It is also not clear in what way producing more graduates in 'mathematics, science and technology' will help 'modernise' higher education in the way the Commission seems to envisage. Given the significance of the Lisbon Strategy in general policy terms, this lack of clarity seems significant.

The European Council's Lisbon Strategy, which was ultimately succeeded by *Europe 2010* (EC, 2005) and *Europe 2020* (EC, 2010), as will be seen below, still appears to have an influence on European policy. It is, for example, still referred to in 2014 as a general guideline for European structural reforms and policies (EU, 2014). Its influence is perhaps still felt because its original goals have not been met. In 2010, the Council conceded that the major goals of the Lisbon Strategy had not been reached (EU, 2010b), with specific reference to the target of 70% employment and a higher rate of secondary-school completion, partly because of the credit crisis that affected global markets from 2007 onwards. Where higher education in particular is concerned, the detail required for country-specific implementation of the Council's recommendations, or the detail required by an interpretation that would suit local conditions, is lacking, perhaps because the Council expects further elaboration from the European Commission and in particular from the EU member states. Accordingly, the recommendations of the Council depend on local (national) interpretation and implementation.

Europe 2010: A Partnership for European Renewal (EC, 2005) in effect laid out the general economic policy direction of the EU up to 2010. It states (2005:6) that the '…most urgent issue facing Europe today is the lack of growth and job creation that safeguards the standard of living and social protection Europeans have grown used to'. In the context of economic growth and job creation, student mobility is emphasised, since it develops a helpful 'skills set' (2005: 7). *Europe 2010* (2005) refers to skills, but does not precisely indicate what skills are meant. However, the desired result is the creation of a workforce that is 'better skilled and better adapted to change' (2005:7). *Europe 2010* includes skills in what it refers to as 'drivers' of growth (2005: 7): 'research and development, modern technology, the highest skills, efficient networks'. Similarly, *Europe 2020* (EC, 2010: 16-17), which succeeded *Europe 2010,* states that the skills desired will enable the workforce 'to adapt to new conditions and potential career shifts, reduce unemployment and raise labour productivity'.

The Lisbon Strategy and its two 'updates' (*Europe 2010* and *2020*), discussed above, were primarily documents concerned with economic themes. Naturally, there is also EU policy that deals directly with educational policy. The Commission has made a compilation (EC, 2013) of what it refers to as the 'main policy initiatives and outputs in

education and training since 2000'. It is evident from the compilation that the link between education and perceived economic benefits extends to language learning, as is made plain by the nature of the reports it has commissioned (EC, 2011b). For example in 2011, one publication was entitled 'Recommendations on how to achieve a better match between the demand and the supply of language skills on the labour market' and in 2012, 'Rethinking Education: Investing in skills for better socio-economic outcomes - Communication'.

Arguably, the most important policy referred to in the compilation is one known as Education and Training 2020, or ET 2020 (EU 2009). The aim of ET 2020 is to

> … support the further development of education and training systems in the Member States aimed at ensuring the personal, social and professional fulfilment of all citizens, as well as sustainable economic prosperity and employability, whilst promoting democratic values, social cohesion, creativity and innovation, active citizenship, and intercultural dialogue.

Clearly, a link is being made between education, professional fulfilment, prosperity and employability. Moreover, ET 2020 (EC 2010b: 11) sets out general EU economic policy until 2020, and describes a need to 'step up the modernisation agenda of higher education (curricula, governance and funding) including by benchmarking university performance and education outcomes in a global context'. In a sense, this appears to confirm the predictions of Shore and Wright (2000) and Lorenz (2006) who warned that universities are increasingly seen in economic terms as service providers which should show a 'profit'. The interpretation of knowledge as a commodity with economic value is noticeable and might be seen to reflect a neo-liberal agenda. ET 2020 should also promote intercultural dialogue and democratic values, but it seems that these are added as an afterthought, and at any rate have to co-exist with economic goals. Consequently, it would appear that cultural diversity and global competitiveness are potentially competing aims in this context.

In 2011, the Council (EC, 2011:1) described foreign-language competencies as 'an essential component of a competitive knowledge-based economy'. Similarly, the Council states (2011:2) that 'foreign language skills, as well as helping to foster mutual

understanding between peoples, are a prerequisite for a mobile workforce and contribute to the competitiveness of the European Union economy'. The Council's view of language competencies as a function of mobility is therefore clear, and echoes statements of the European Commission. Puetter (2012) has noted that the Council and the Commission frequently agree on economic goals, and this might be the reason why it emphasises the importance of student mobility, since it sees it as a facilitator of economic growth. This desired mobility, as conceived by the Council, is 'between peoples', and is therefore presumably international. Haberland (2009) uses the term 'transnational student mobility', which expresses this idea more clearly. The general emphasis is on creating a 'competitive knowledge-based economy' so that in the EU 'competitiveness' may presumably improve. Again, the idea of tertiary education and research is largely seen as being valid with reference to economic goals and the concept of mobility is referred to in the context of language skills.

2.2.4.5 CLIL

In a Staff Working Document, the European Commission endorses (EUR-Lex, 2012) CLIL. The Commission notes that:

> …teaching should be improved with the help of innovative methods, including Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) where non-language subjects are taught through the medium of a foreign language,

This endorsement of CLIL preceded a project carried out by an international team co-ordinated by Turku University in Turku, Finland, from 2006 to 2009. The team's findings are summarised in a handbook (Järvinen et al, 2009:6), which regards CLIL as being relevant to the tertiary level, where content is primary and language is seen as a vehicle. According to the authors, teaching in a foreign language is therefore an activity that can be taken for granted at the university level. Nevertheless, my knowledge of local conditions suggests that CLIL is not implemented in the local context, and so it has not been a topic which has concerned the study so far. CLIL is the only language pedagogy that receives specific mention at the macro level, and since it has been privileged by policy-makers in this way it will receive further attention in this study, and will be discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.

2.2.4.6 Summary of language policy in EU legislation

The above discussion of the themes identified in the policy review is summarised in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4 Overview of EU Legislation Pertaining to Language Policy

Promoting Linguistic Diversity		
Council (EUR-Lex, 1995)	1995	The Council proposes measures to improve teaching and learning of foreign languages, to increase the number of languages taught, and to increase existing knowledge through mobility, e.g. through language stays abroad and through newly developing virtual media.
Council (EUR-Lex, 1998)	1998	Council Resolution on the Early Learning of Languages; recommends that member states encourage learning of at least one foreign language at an early age, as a method of preserving the Union's linguistic diversity, and two foreign languages before completion of school.
Council (EUR-Lex, 2002, 2008)	2002, 2008	Resolution regarding promotion of linguistic diversity and language learning; encourages member states to encourage school pupils to learn two foreign languages, and refers to CEFR for validation of competence. The Council repeats the commitment to 'mother tongue plus two' in 2008.
Commission (EUR-Lex, 2003)	2003	The Commission proposes an action plan for 2004 - 2006 to promote language learning and linguistic diversity; it noted that the range of foreign languages spoken by EU citizens is narrow and mostly limited to English, French, German and Spanish. English as a sole foreign language is not sufficient; the responsibility for fostering language learning ultimately lies with the member states.
Commission (EUR-Lex, 2005a)	2005	Proposes new 'framework for multilingualism'; Multilingualism is seen as both the existence of many languages in an area, and the multilingual capacity of an individual; the goal of 'mother tongue plus two' is repeated, and it is stressed that learning English alone is not an acceptable alternative.
Parliament (EUR-Lex, 2006a)	2006	Resolution on measures to promote multilingualism and language learning; pledged its support of multilingualism and the 'mother tongue plus two' policy.

Support for a Common Scale of Reference for Languages (CEFR)		
Commission (EUR-Lex, 2005b)	2005	Establishment of a Linguistic Competence Indicator, in which the Commission proposes to the Council and Parliament that the CEFR be used as an official scale to endorse language competence.
Commission (EUR-Lex, 2007a)	2007	The Commission proposed a survey to establish the level of foreign language competence in the EU. The goal of the survey was to measure general language competence in all four skills in all member states, and focused on the first and second 'most taught official languages' of the EU, namely Spanish, Italian, German, French, and English. The survey was based on an instrument measuring language competence in levels A1 - B2 of the CEFR (see section 2.4 below).
Commission (EUR-Lex, 2012)	2012	Ultimately, the final survey (proposed in 2007) was carried out in 14 EU countries and 42% of around 54,000 respondents were found to be 'competent' in the first foreign language, but only 25% in the second.
Council (EUR-Lex, 2014)	2014	The second-language competence of 15-year old pupils is to be assessed, to determine whether they have reached the CEFR B1 level.
Support for a Critical Dimension in Education		
Council, Parliament (EUR-Lex, 2006b)	2006	Critical thinking is listed as a key competence required for 'lifelong learning', which is seen as necessary for personal fulfilment, active citizenship, social cohesion and employability in a knowledge society'; it is implicitly linked with the learning of foreign languages, another key competence required for lifelong learning.
Language learning as a factor favouring mobility and employability		
Council (EU, 2000)	2000	In the Lisbon Strategy (not be confused with the Treaty of Lisbon) the EU adopts the ambitious target of 'becoming the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world by 2020'.
Commission (EUR-Lex, 2005c)	2005	Europe 2010 (Plan for Economic Growth till 2010) in effect lays out the general economic policy direction of the EU till 2010. It stresses the need for job creation and economic growth. In this context, student mobility is seen to develop a helpful 'skills set' (2005: 7). The

		desired result is the creation of a workforce that is 'better skilled and better adapted to change' (2005:7). Europe 2010 sees skills as a driver of economic growth (2005: 7).
Commission (EUR-Lex, 2007b)	2007	Council concludes that member states should promote multilingualism as a facilitator of competitiveness, mobility, employability and intercultural dialogue.
Commission (ET 2020, 2009)	2009	The aim of ET 2020 is to further develop the education and training systems of Member States in order to promote personal, social and professional fulfilment, but also sustainable economic prosperity and employability. It is intended to succeed Europe 2010. It seeks to reduce unemployment and describes mobility as a factor favouring employment.
Commission (EUR-Lex, 2011,2012)	2011 2012	In the context of ET 2020, the Commission issues two reports dealing with demand and the supply of language skills on the labour market.
Parliament (Europarl, 2013)	2013	A document entitled 'Language Policy' requires all children in the EU to learn two foreign languages from an early age. It refers to EU mobility programmes, for example: Erasmus (higher education), and Comenius (school education).

2.2.5 European Language Policy and the Local Context

Language policy at the micro (institutional level) will be the focus of the next chapter of this study, but for the sake of clarity it seems helpful to briefly consider how the higher level (macro) as discussed so far might apply to the local (institutional) context. The discussion of EU language policy has so far yielded important insights, albeit of a rather general nature. It has made much of the importance of the need to promote employability, and the relationship between mobility, employability and language skills. In the context of this study, it is important to remember that that a key feature of the Bachelor programme is its trinationality, and the mobility and language skills that this

requires: its students, who commute between France, Germany and Switzerland, must be fluent in English, German and French.

On the surface, it appears that this commuting body of students, studying Business Administration, is well-equipped to become the 'mobile workforce' envisaged by the European Council. Yet experience suggests that although the students are mobile, they generally complete internships required by the course in their home countries, so it is not clear that their mobility as workers is demonstrated in these terms. The concept of a mobile workforce is not sufficiently defined: a mobile worker might be, for example, somebody who lives in his own country and crosses the border to go to work. Alternatively, it could mean somebody who relocates, but who works for the same company elsewhere. Large corporations tend to have a company culture and preferred language, so the language in the new location could be the same as in the old – in a sense, mobility without language skills.

Against this backdrop, the academic concerns of language teaching, and international standards in ELT, also need to be considered, since a potential non-alignment of policy and pedagogy might inhibit attempts to develop or sustain a multilingual Europe. The pedagogical element will be discussed in the next section, devoted to horizontal influences.

2.3 Horizontal Macro Influences: International Standards in English language Teaching

In this section, the study will focus on practices and concepts that, although they do not originate from official state policy, are influential in ELT practice. They are referred to as 'horizontal' influences, since they influence language teaching practices across institutional and national borders, but are not imposed from above. Although these influences do not have legal status or a fixed form, they can be reinforced by teacher training programmes, departmental culture or academic programmes. They spread and change through practice, as will be discussed in the following sections.

2.3.1 The Council of Europe and the CEFR

The Council of Europe, which is not an EU institution and not to be confused with any political body discussed above, was set up in 1949 (Council of Europe, 2009). It had 49 members in 2013 (CoE, 2013), including non-EU members such as Switzerland, Norway, Turkey and Iceland, and its membership is comprised of the Ministers of Education of each participating nation. The Council of Europe is mentioned here because, despite the fact that it has, as an organisation, no official and binding policy-making capacity, it sets influential standards for language teaching in practice, particularly through its publication of the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages).

It is important to note that the Council of Europe (CoE) in effect undertakes to promote plurilingualism. In the CEFR (2001:4), the CoE made an early attempt to describe the concept of plurilingualism:

> It is no longer seen as enough simply to achieve 'mastery' of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the 'ideal native speaker' as the ultimate model. Instead, the aim is to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place.

This description is somewhat vague but seems to indicate that where language learning is concerned, the whole is more than the sum of the parts, and that competencies in one language can flow over into another. However, Jessner (2008), after reviewing recent uses of the term in the field, concluded that plurilingualism can be taken to mean multilingualism of the individual. Spolsky (2004:4) agrees that plurilingualism refers to varying competencies in the language skills of an individual while multilingualism refers to a society where several languages are spoken.

Perhaps because of this disagreement, in its publication *Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education* (Beacco et al, 2010), the Council simplified the definition of plurilingualism as 'the ability to use more than one language'. This study will use the terms multilingualism and

plurilingualism interchangeably, as both can apply to the language learning of the individual. It is interesting to note the suggestions the Council makes about pedagogical approaches that could be used to foster plurilingualism. On one hand, the *Guide* (2010: 20) refers to 'Increased coherence between contents, methods and terminologies' but also mentions a 'project-based pedagogy' (2010: 20), something more closely linked with CLT (Richards, 2006). It describes (2010: 81) CLIL as an 'integration of languages and subject content', and as a desirable teacher competence (2010: 80). Like the European Commission in 2.2.2, therefore, the CoE recommends CLIL as a 'desirable' pedagogy. On the other hand, however, the *Guide* makes frequent reference to the CEFR, to which the discussion will now turn.

The CEFR states its goal as being to provide 'a common basis for the scaling of overall language proficiency' (CEFR, 2001:4). The CEFR has already featured in this study as a tool used by the EU to assess language competence (EUR-lex, 2005b; 2007a). Although the CEFR in its original form was first published (North, 2000) as a doctoral thesis a year after the Bologna Declaration, it does not directly reflect the Declaration's influence; though it mentions the goal of increased mobility, it is any case not concerned with reforms to higher education, and yet it has come to be widely used where competencies in second and third languages are discussed. Its most well-known feature is a set of descriptive scales which contain specifications for language competence developed by North (2000; Council of Europe, 2001). In brief, the CEFR conceptualises language competence as a set of skills which can be allotted to six discrete levels, the highest level being C2, or 'near-native' proficiency (North, 2000; CoE, 2001). The CEFR sets out (CoE, 2001:1)

> … to overcome the barriers to communication among professionals working in the field of modern languages arising from the different educational systems in Europe …. the Framework will enhance the transparency of courses, syllabuses and qualifications, thus promoting international co-operation in the field of modern languages. The provision of objective criteria for describing language proficiency will facilitate the mutual recognition of qualifications gained in different learning contexts, and accordingly will aid European mobility.

These are broad claims, and perhaps unsurprisingly, the CEFR has received a good deal of criticism. For example, critics disagree as to whether the CEFR in fact provides the 'objective criteria' it claims to. Critical reactions to the CEFR will be discussed in more detail later in this section, but for better or worse, the framework is firmly entrenched in the practice of my institution. Nevertheless, the appropriateness of its inclusion in a tertiary-level curriculum is open to doubt, especially since it was not originally conceived for implementation at the tertiary level, as stated above.

An example of the kind of competencies the CEFR specifies is given below, in respect of conversational skills expected at the two highest CEFR levels, C1 - C2 (CoE, 2008:13).

CONVERSATION

C2	Can converse comfortably and appropriately, unhampered by any linguistic limitations in conducting a full social and personal life.
C1	Can use language flexibly and effectively for social purposes, including emotional, allusive and joking usage.

Critics have attacked the vagueness of these descriptors (e.g. Alderson et al, 2004; Weir, 2005; Little 2007, Hulstijn, 2007; Byrnes, 2007). Besides criticizing the open-endedness of the CEFR's descriptors, several observers (e.g. Weir, 2005; Hulstijn, 2007; Little, 2007; Alderson, 2007) express doubts about the validity of the CEFR's empirical basis and the assumptions it appears to make about second-language acquisition (SLA). An indication that the CEFR was perhaps a work in progress at the time of its publication was North's comment in 2007 that levels C1 and C2 'had a relatively small number of descriptors'. With this in mind, he then collected a number of specifications from various sources (North, 2007). However, it is not clear whether this addition to the descriptors has achieved anything close to the recognition of the original CEFR, but it does cast doubt on the fullness of the original descriptor set.

Despite these objections, there can be no doubt that the CEFR has influenced language policy in a variety of contexts. In Austria, for example, Krumm (2007: 668) states that would-be immigrants must pass CEFR-aligned examinations as part of the mandatory immigration procedure, while De Jong (2007) notes that the CEFR is used to define levels of language proficiency for immigration purposes in Canada, the

Netherlands, and Australia. Moreover, Bonnet (2007) states that the CEFR has been regarded as the basis of language teaching and learning in primary and secondary education in France from 2007 onwards. In Switzerland, it is federal policy that applicants to Universities of Applied Science should possess at least a B2 level in a foreign language (EBMP, 2010). The CEFR is also a key point of reference in the English-language support programme that forms the object of this study.

Due to the influence of the CEFR, it is perhaps worth considering how the specifications for various levels of language competence came about. To a certain extent, the idea of context-free competencies derives from earlier work, in particular Van Ek and Trim (1975, 1977), an influence which North (2000: 183) acknowledges. Yet Van Ek and Trim's definitions of language competence also appear to be based on assumptions about the language needs of students, since the specifications they provide do not refer to empirical research. In an attempt to give his own work an empirical foundation, North organised a group of 100 Swiss teachers, employed at either secondary schools, vocational schools for apprentices, or language schools, to start processing the 400 descriptors North had chosen from a pool of about 2,000 (2000: 186). The participants were required to sort the descriptors into the six (preliminary) categories of competence. Though North admits that such allocation is 'notoriously subjective', he states that 'a set of approximately equal levels was established' (2000: 295). Participants were encouraged to edit descriptors which they felt to be unsatisfactory, with the general result that descriptors were rejected or shortened if they:

a) were longer than 20 words
b) amounted to a statement of what the learner could not do
c) contained dense, verbose language, or jargon
d) were too classroom-oriented, with specific context-bound examples

In other words, very short, general statements were produced which specifically aimed to be context-free. The CEFR was intended to steer clear of 'specific context-bound examples' (North 2000: 295).

The CEFR has also received critical support; for example, see Schneider and Lenz, (2004) and Räisänen and Fortanet-Gomez, (2008), who credit the CEFR with establishing a firm basis for conceptualising communicative language competence. Apart from the common reference levels for various languages, the authors acknowledge the CEFR's overview of competencies: linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence, the four language activities; reception, production, interaction and mediation; and three domains: personal, occupational and educational (2008: 19). Developing these competencies (linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic) is also a goal of CLT, which is discussed in the next section.

Despite the serious criticisms levelled at the CEFR, one cannot simply wish it away, and its use at tertiary level is widespread: even a brief survey uncovers examples of this in L2 settings: Turkey (Glover, 2011), the Netherlands (Lowie et al, 2010), Italy (Newbold, 2009); Japan (Rappleye et al, 2011; Nakatani, 2012), China (Gilardi, 2012) and Spain (Neff-van Aertselaer, 2013). Within Europe, Barrault-Méthy (2012: 191) comments that both the EU and the Council of Europe endorse use of the CEFR for standardizing language learning. As we will see in Chapter 3, the CEFR is acknowledged in course descriptions produced by the English department.

2.3.2 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

CLT or Communicative Language Teaching is the dominant pedagogy in English language teaching at present (Jacobs and Farrell, 2003; Richards, 2006; Magnan, 2007, Kramsch, 2014). Although a CLT-influenced syllabus was identified as a major point of interest for this study in 1.2, the main focus of this chapter is European Language Policy in Higher Education and so it may seem strange to mention CLT here, as the connection between the two might not be immediately clear. Yet its inclusion in this section can be justified for at least two reasons, as I will argue below: firstly because of CLT's link with the CEFR, and secondly because of the strong overlap of CLT with the goals of European language policy.

Firstly, the CEFR acknowledges a debt to Van Ek and Alexander (1980), and Canale & Swain (1980), who propose the use of language in specific communicative contexts. For example, Van Ek and Trim (1998: 1) state that:

> '… by far the largest single group of language learners everywhere consists of people who want to prepare themselves to communicate socially with people from other countries, exchanging information and opinions on everyday matters in a relatively straightforward way, and to conduct the necessary business of everyday living when abroad with a reasonable degree of independence.'

In a publication that was probably instrumental in laying the foundations of the communicative approach, Canale and Swain (1980: 6) argue that teaching methodology should be designed to 'address not only communicative competence but also communicative performance i.e. the actual demonstration of this competence in *real* second language situations and for *authentic* communication purposes [original emphasis retained].' The concept of language use in specific contexts can therefore be closely linked to the pedagogy of CLT. Furthermore, the CEFR is seen to have a close link with the dominant second-/foreign-language pedagogy, CLT. For instance, Cambridge ESOL, a major international provider of language examinations, made the following statement:

> The development of the CEFR coincided with fundamental changes in language teaching, with the move away from the grammar-translation method to the functional/notional approach and the communicative approach. The CEFR reflects these later approaches. (Cambridge ESOL 2011: 5)

As Richards and Rodgers (2001) point out, the functional/notional approach is linked with CLT because it leads to the conceptualization of language teaching by meaning and function, as opposed to an organisation based on structure and grammar. The link between the CEFR and CLT is therefore strong.

There is a second reason why a discussion of CLT is merited in this context, which is what I would term the agreement between the practical focus of CLT on real-world tasks and European language policy. European language policy is very concerned with students' employability (see, for example, Bologna Agreement, Europe 2010, Europe 2020). In short, European language policy intends that students should have

the language skills that make them both mobile and employable, whereas CLT, particularly in its manifestation of ESP, attempts to anticipate the workplace needs of students. Jacobs and Farrell (2003) claim that the widespread adoption of CLT is nothing less than a 'paradigm shift', and point out that paradigm shifts are major events which by definition change the way we view reality, like quantum physics in science. They go on to argue (2003: 16) that CLT has changed expectations not only of what students need to learn, but also of how they can be evaluated. CLT fundamentally assumes that students stand a better chance of developing language skills 'if the language has relevance for their lives and if they are given ample opportunity to practise them with their peers' (O'Sullivan, 2001:52; see also Richards, 2006; Jacobs and Farrell, 2003).

Moreover, the communicative approach promotes the development of the four language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) in an integrated way that attempts to anticipate student needs in the real world (Richards, 2006: 11). Richards describes ESP (English for Specific Purposes) courses as arising as a natural result of needs analyses carried out to determine what students require (2006: 12). He refers to Van Ek and Alexander's (1980) *Threshold Level* as the first broadly influential syllabus developed within the framework of CLT. The updated version, known as *Threshold 1990,* (Van Ek and Trim, 1991) refers to many syllabus items that will be familiar to teachers in the local context, especially a focus on the four skills and a concern with learning grammar and vocabulary in a structured, concept-related manner. Somewhat earlier, Nunan (1991: 1) gives an overview of the principles of task-based teaching, a pedagogy closely linked to the communicative approach:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner’s own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.

This seems to emphasise the importance of 'relevance' for CLT: for example, texts should be 'authentic' and language learning should correspond with activities 'outside the classroom' such as, for example, the world of work.

However, CLT has been criticised for a number of reasons. Its focus on student needs, for example in the workplace, has been criticized (e.g. Wallace, 2002; Magnan, 2007; Kramsch, 2014). Wallace (2002) criticises CLT because it confines itself to dealing with everyday situations and fails to provide students with a language of critique to evaluate their experiences. She states (2002: 110) that 'CLT has been under attack for some time now on the grounds – as interpreted in actual ELT materials if not applied linguistics texts – the goal tends to be talk for its own sake; simply talking is enough, and it is immaterial what you talk about.' Magnan (2007: 250) comments in a similar vein:

> Recognition of socially constituted linguistics would mean that language is not separated from social action, which would reverse the Input-Interaction-Output model and the standard practice of CLT teaching in which linguistic questions are primary and the social comes to play only secondarily, if at all.

The importance of the social aspect of language is underlined by the fact that CLT has received resistance in certain quarters. It has for example been shown that CLT is culture-specific and has been resisted in certain settings, e.g. in Japan (Sato, 2009) and China (Hu, 2010) where its precepts run contrary to well-established local pedagogies. It remains to be seen whether CLT is suitable in all respects for the local situation, with its arguably unique characteristics that involve a multicultural group of students studying business English in an academic setting.

Kramsch (2014:301) maintains that CLT has even contributed towards the development of language courses as a commodity:

> As communicative language teaching (CLT) gave way to task-based language teaching (TLBT) and content-based instruction (CBI), also called content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in Europe, it has … brought language

> learning yet closer to the real world of work and the economy. It has not abandoned the teaching of national cultural information and literary samples, but it has made them into goods that can be exchanged for greater symbolic distinction. Knowledge of a FL [foreign language] has become … an 'added value' … It is no coincidence that beginning FL textbooks have become more and more like tourist brochures….

It therefore seems that CLT, in its various manifestations, can turn students into service providers whose knowledge of languages gives them an 'added value' in the labour market. This reading of CLT is slightly disturbing, in the sense that academic content may be dominated by the overbearing concern with market needs that seems to be indicated by the policy review so far, and a CLT-influenced pedagogy.

2.4 Language Policy at Meso (National and Regional) Level

Whereas Germany and Switzerland show certain similarities in terms of devolution of law-making to regional level, France is a centralised state where policy-making is done centrally (Malan, 2004; Pilkington, 2012). As we will see, this affects the way the education system is organised in each country. The political organisation of Germany and Switzerland suggest a considerable degree of autonomy at regional level, evidenced by law-making at the federal and regional level. At least two questions arise in this respect: whether there is coherence of policy between levels, e.g. supranational and macro, and whether there is also coherence within a particular level. In the light of the traditional academic freedom enjoyed by universities and other higher-education institutions, the relevance of a discussion of governmental policy-making at the national or regional level may not be immediately clear. Nevertheless, the term 'freedom' needs to be understood relatively. Though institutions may have their own policy agendas at micro level (Baldauf, 2006; Spolsky, 2004), they do not exist in a policy vacuum. As Van der Walt (2013: 23) comments:

> Seen from the perspective of compulsory primary and secondary education, HE [Higher Education] seems blissfully free of government or supra-national organizations' interference. Despite their 'autonomy' and 'academic freedom',

> HEIs [Higher Education Institutes], particularly universities, are not immune to government-imposed curricula and assessment strategies.

One also has to take the policy background into account as being part of the 'ecology' of the educational context. A failure to do so would exclude the possibility that governmental policies have exerted an influence on the English-language support syllabus.

In the coverage of national-language policy that follows, there will be several passages in German and also some in French (in italics), which I will undertake to translate, due to my regular exposure to these languages in the context of my work in the trinational programme.

2.4.1 Switzerland

In Switzerland, the laws governing education are primarily made at the federal level. Switzerland is divided into 26 regions known as cantons, each of which have law-making competencies. Rege-Colet and Durand (2004: 169) noted that despite Bologna harmonisation, '…the Swiss higher education system remains extremely heterogeneous with marked differences and distinct academic cultures between the linguistic regions.' Whereas Swiss universities are primarily accountable to the cantons where they are based, the universities of applied sciences are governed at the national level by the *Fachhochschulgesetz* (FHG, 1995), although they are funded and administrated by the cantons (Lepori, 2008).

The FHG of 1995 introduced a paradigm shift into the Swiss educational landscape. Before then, pupils of around 14 years of age were separated into two broad streams at secondary level, academic and vocational, based on their academic results (Swiss Department of Education/SDE, 2013). The 'academics' then proceed on to university study, whereas the remaining pupils pursue vocational qualifications, combining apprenticeships with conventional school study from the age of 16 onwards. The FHG, however, meant that for the first time, those who had been assigned to the vocational stream at the age of 14 had the chance to achieve Bachelor's degrees upon

admission to a *Fachhochschule* (or *FH*; in English, University of Applied Sciences or UAS). Previously, such students would have received a diploma from a vocational college, but with the introduction of the FHG in 1995 many of these colleges were renamed as UASs. In addition, students who obtain entrance to a UAS can be admitted to a traditional university after an interim year of study there (SDE, 2013).

In Switzerland, therefore, there is a general division between pupils who study at Gymnasium (a secondary school aiming to prepare its students for university entrance without a specific vocational focus) and those who from the age of 16 combine an apprenticeship with regular schoolwork. Successful completion of the apprenticeship leads to the *Berufsmaturität*, (Vocational School Leaving Certificate) the examination which traditionally guarantees access to a Swiss UAS. It is notable that the Department of Education recommends that a CEFR B2 level should be achieved at the *Berufsmaturität*. (SDE, 2015)

Since 2004, however, education in the 'first foreign language' (de facto, English) has begun at primary levels in some cantons. In 2004, the Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education announced that teaching of a second national language and first foreign language should begin in the third year of school and fifth school year respectively (Harmos Reform). In 2013, however, the conference admitted that only 12 of 26 cantons had implemented the reform (SDE 2013d).

The legal provisions of the FHG will now be examined in more detail. All translations provided in the remainder of this chapter are my own.

2.4.1.1 Switzerland's Fachhochschulgesetz (University of Applied Sciences Act), 1995

The Universities of Applied Sciences Act makes several statements with regard to the role of the UAS in Switzerland. Article 2 (1995:2) prescribes that

> *Fachhochschulen sind Ausbildungsstätten der Hochschulstufe, die grundsätzlich auf einer beruflichen Grundausbildung aufbauen.*

> Universities of Applied Science are educational institutions at the tertiary level which fundamentally build on a basic vocational education.

This seems to suggest that the intake of UASs is primarily constituted of students with a vocational (and not academic) background. In Switzerland, such a vocational education normally comprises the completion of a three- to four-year apprenticeship. Article 3 pursues the idea of vocational education further:

> *Die Fachhochschulen bereiten durch praxisorientierte Diplomstudien auf berufliche Tätigkeiten vor, welche die Anwendung wissenschaftlicher Erkenntnisse und Methoden sowie, je nach Fachbereich, gestalterische und künstlerische Fähigkeiten erfordern.*
>
> Through practically oriented degree courses, the Universities of Applied Sciences prepare students for professional employment which requires the application of scientific knowledge and also, depending on the vocational context, creative and artistic abilities.

Unfortunately for the teacher, what exactly is meant by 'professional employment' is left open. Moreover, the FHG makes no direct reference to language policy, but the notion that education at the UAS should lead to employment is abundantly clear.

In a somewhat confusing development, the FHG has, as of 1 January 2015, been succeeded by the *Hochschulförderungs- und Koordinationsgesetz* (HFKG) (SBFI, 2015). In English, this would translate to 'Higher Education Development and Coordination Law'. However, the HFGK does not define a new educational direction for UAS in the Swiss context, or refer to practical matters such as which students can be admitted to higher education. It is more concerned with accreditation and coordination among HEIs in Switzerland with a view to quality management. In the absence of any indication to the contrary, one tends to assume that the key tenets of the UAS educational approach, e.g. preparation for employment, still apply.

2.4.1.2 General Language Provisions in Swiss Law

The *Sprachengesetz* (Languages Act, 2007) seeks to 'preserve the competence in four national languages [*Viersprachigkeit*] that characterizes Switzerland' (Art. 2a) and undertakes to treat the four national languages equally (Art. 3a). It soon becomes clear that this egalitarian position is not always sustainable, since Article 10 provides in general for publication of official documents in French, German and Italian, with Romansh only considered in particular cases (Art.11) and in one canton. Article 15, simply entitled 'Teaching' [Unterricht], requires the following:

> *[Bund und Kantone] setzen sich im Rahmen ihrer Zuständigkeit für einen Fremdsprachenunterricht ein, der gewährleistet, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler am Ende der obligatorischen Schulzeit über Kompetenzen in mindestens einer zweiten Landessprache und einer weiteren Fremdsprache verfügen.*
>
> The state and cantons promote a model of foreign-language teaching that ensures that pupils have developed competencies in at least a second national language and a further foreign language.

Firstly, it appears that this approach is similar to the EU policy of 'mother tongue plus two'. Crucially, the Languages Act does not require that the third language taught in schools be a national language. It has been pointed out that in practice this opens the doors to the teaching of English at primary and secondary level (NZZ, 2007).

Stolz (2006: 248) has noted that the Swiss constitution seeks to preserve harmony between the four official languages (German, French, Italian, and Romansh). The notion of peaceful co-existence of languages is so important that Article 70.2 of the Swiss constitution prescribes that 'the Cantons shall designate their official languages. In order to preserve harmony between linguistic communities, they shall respect the traditional territorial distribution of languages, and take into account the indigenous linguistic minorities.' He notes that languages are therefore designated territorial rights, and in theory have the right to 'defend' their territory. Nevertheless, French seems to have lost ground in at least one case: Stolz reports (2006: 257) that English

has replaced French as a preferred second language at primary schools in the canton of Zurich, which has made use of its considerable independence in matters of educational policy. A conflict therefore appears between support for plurilingualism at national level and regional preferences.

Although CLIL received enthusiastic backing from the European Commission, it appears that CLIL is not endorsed at any official level in Switzerland although there is limited evidence of its application at primary and secondary schools (Serra, 2007).

2.4.1.3 Cantonal Contract (Staatsvertrag) for the Establishment and Development of the University of Applied Sciences, Switzerland, 2005

Ironically, Article 5 of the *Staatsvertrag,* a law at the regional level which governs joint administration of the local Swiss Higher Education institution by four cantons, makes the following provision:

> *Freiheit von Lehre, Forschung und Kunst*
> *Die [Hochschule] wahrt bei allen ihren Tätigkeiten ihre Unabhängigkeit sowie die Freiheit von Lehre, Forschung und Kunst.*[3]
>
> Academic freedom, and freedom of research and art
> The [Higher Education Institution] retains in all its activities its independence as well as academic freedom, and the freedom of research and art.

This seems to be a defence of academic freedom, and one might argue that in an age where some would argue that education is being subverted for economic terms (e.g. Lynch, 2006; Hughes, 2008) it is important to maintain the tradition of academic freedom. In the Swiss context, it could be argued that the binary system of academic/vocational streams provides for the needs of the economy while safeguarding the academic tradition. However, the broad divide between academic and practical described here is somewhat misleading. Firstly, it appears that the FHG and the *Staatsvertrag* both defend academic freedom, though in slightly different terms. The concept of the UAS, or *Fachhochschule*, is therefore not by definition opposed to academic considerations. Moreover, as Perellon (2003: 357) has pointed out, it would be misleading to see the Swiss higher-education landscape in purely

[3] The institution is not named for legal reasons

binary terms, where traditional universities are harbours of academic and the UAS offer only vocational education. It is better, he argues, 'to think in terms of a continuum in which different types of institutions locate themselves, rather than of a rigid “divide” between vocational and academic education that no longer really exists in practice, if it ever did.'

I would argue that this view is easily supported by examples from tertiary practice. For instance, students of medicine at university do not normally confine their studies to purely academic topics, but also must implement what they learn in medical practice to prepare for their future profession. Likewise, it is doubtful that preparation for employment at the UAS can be effective if it is entirely devoid of theoretical considerations; here the study of economics, which all business students at the UAS have to pursue, comes to mind. The question arises, then, whether this defence of academic freedom in Swiss educational policy provides the UAS teachers a window to admit more theoretical, and critical, considerations to their teaching practice, beyond the traditional UAS preparation for employment.

2.4.2 German Language Policy

Where language policy is concerned, Spolsky (2004: 8) distinguishes between language practices and language management and planning. This is to my mind a slightly clearer interpretation than Baldauf's (2006) distinction between policy and planning, or Shohamy's language policy and language education policy. I would argue that the complexity of the German policy landscape makes Spolsky's use of the term 'language practices' relevant. Regarding management and planning, it can in general be stated that Germany does not have coherent language policy, at least not in the sense of policies operating at the federal level in the sense that Switzerland does. Where language policy is concerned, it appears that it is more accurate to refer to language practices (Spolsky, 2004) than language planning.

Where language practices are concerned, Erling and Hilgendorf, (2006: 274) report that English is increasingly being used as a medium of instruction at HEIs, due to the Bologna reforms. Although an official report of Germany's Federal Ministry of Education and Research (GFME, 2012: 92) refers to English as '*erste Fremdsprache*'

or first foreign language at secondary school, there does not appear to be a central law stipulating that English (or any other language) should occupy this position. This does not mean that there are no trends in language learning, however; Erling and Hilgendorf (2006) report that 77% of German pupils are learning English, with the second most popular language being French, learnt by 15%. Yet this appears to be a spontaneous, and not centrally organized, development. Furthermore, the *Landeshochschulgesetz* (German LGH, 2005) makes specific provisions relating to Co-operative State Universities (Duale Hochschulen). The UAS is partnered with one such university in Baden-Württemberg. Article 2, section 5 stipulates that such institutions should act in cooperation with industry:

> *die Duale Hochschule vermittelt durch die Verbindung des Studiums an der Studienakademie mit der praxisorientierten Ausbildung in den beteiligten Ausbildungsstätten (duales System) die Fähigkeit zu selbstständiger Anwendung wissenschaftlicher Erkenntnisse und Methoden in der Berufspraxis; sie betreibt im Zusammenwirken mit den Ausbildungsstätten auf die Erfordernisse der dualen Ausbildung bezogene Forschung (kooperative Forschung).*
>
> The Co-operative State University offers through the connection of studies at the university with the practice-oriented education at training posts in cooperating companies (dual system), the competence to independently implement scientific knowledge and methods in professional practice; in cooperation with the training companies, it carries out research relevant to the needs of dual education (dual research).

The focus on vocational education and research at the German partner institution is therefore enshrined in law. In practice, this means that students registered at such German institutions have internships prescribed by law. Experience suggests that this is not the case for French and Swiss students, who are required to seek a new internship at the end of each academic year. Similar to the federal law, Article 58 prescribes that foreign students have sufficient language competencies as required by the course of study; no mention is made of language competence in another context. In articles 2 and 3, the regional Law on Higher Education in Baden-Württemberg (LGH) commits to both academic freedom and preparation for (skilled) employment. It

has been pointed out above that these two provisions cannot simultaneously exist in absolute terms, but this is arguably one of the classic ambivalences besetting tertiary education (Weiler, 2005). This ambivalence, however, is not a matter of official concern: the German Ministry of Education has recently launched an online campaign in support of dual education entitled 'Vocational Education - Practically Unbeatable'. [4]

If an ideology or belief can be detected in the German policy landscape, it is one of a profound distrust of the centralized state. For instance, the *Hochschulrahmengesetz* (German Higher Education Law, 2006) sets out legal definitions for the duties and responsibilities of HEIs across Germany. However, this process has proven highly controversial in Germany and has been fiercely criticized, largely because it is perceived as excessively limiting the freedom of the German states in matters of tertiary education (German Bundesrat, 2007). As Ash (2006: 256) points out, the tradition of independence enjoyed by the German states has speeded up the pace of Bologna reforms, since each state has introduced the reforms autonomously, without being obliged to wait for consensus with the other states. One stipulation at the federal level which remains unchallenged, it seems, is that students wishing to obtain the *Fachhochschulreife*, or entrance certificate to universities of applied science, must obtain CEF level B2 in a foreign language.[5]

This lack of coordination extends to language policy and it could be argued that the lack of coherent language policy is at least partly due to the strong autonomy of the German states: for instance, the age at which children start learning a second language depends on the state that they live in (Goethe Institute, 2013). The German constitution states that 'nobody be discriminated against, or receive preferential treatment, on the basis of his or her sex, descent, race, language, country of origin, beliefs, religious or political views'. (German Bundestag, 2013). This does not apply in strict terms to higher education, however; the law on higher education (see 3.3.2) stipulates that suitably qualified Germans are in principle guaranteed entry – but does not mention other nationalities, except that admission of students from other EU countries is dependent on their possessing the 'necessary' language competence.

[4] http://www.praktisch-unschlagbar.de/ , accessed 20.8.2013
[5] http://www.ls-bw.de/dienstleistungen/beruflschulen/pruefungen/kmk/KMK-Leitfaden_1_2013.pdf/view?searchterm=GER%20B2 , accessed 20.8.2013

2.4.2.1 Requirements for German HEIs

Articles 2 and 7 of the *Hochschulramengesetz* or Higher Education Framework Law (translation by Ash, 2006) require that students be prepared for a 'berufliche Tätigkeit' (professional occupation). It should be remarked that this provision applies to all tertiary institutions, including traditional universities, not just to Fachhochschulen and other HEIs with a vocational approach. Simultaneously, the law seeks to protect academic freedom (Art. 4), for instance regarding 'Fragestellung', namely the kind of topics that can be dealt with. It is evident that the co-existence of these Articles 2, 4 and 7 is slightly uneasy: their logical synthesis is that the *Fragestellung* is free as long it refers to topics that are related to preparation for employment, essentially meaning that academic freedom in this context is a relative term. It is telling that Article 70 requires new HEIs wishing to obtain state recognition to fulfill Article 7, in other words, ensure that the education they offer is career-related. This creates the impression that where vocational education and academic freedom are concerned, the former is *primus inter pares*.

There is no particular language policy at the tertiary level specified in Baden-Württemberg (BW). Language policy at the secondary level has recently been fiercely contested. In 2007, it was reported that Helmut Rau, the regional minister of education, sought to make legally binding the teaching of French as the first foreign language at secondary schools in the part of BW adjacent to France. However, this move was successfully resisted by parents.[6] State policy in BW is that English or French lessons are obligatory from the first year of primary school, and have been so since 2004 (BW, 2009). In 2011, it was announced that all secondary school pupils in the state were obliged to learn English, whereas in 2009 75% learnt French, 32% Latin and 22% Spanish (BW, 2011). No reference is made, however, to desired exit levels in these languages, but this is regulated at the national level (*Fachhochschulreife*).

[6] http://www.spiegel.de/schulspiegel/wissen/franzoesisch-zwang-baden-wuerttembergs-kultusminister-lenkt-ein-a-496300.html accessed 13.8.2013

2.4.3 Language Policy in France

It should first be pointed out that the political organization of France, and its education system, are centrally administered and implemented to a degree that would be inconceivable in both Switzerland and Germany. Gauthier & Le Gouvello (2010:75) state that '[w]hat is taught in schools is not decided in schools by the actors. Rather, it is fixed and dictated to all education agents at the national level'. Pilkington (2012) notes that it was only in 2007 that universities gained complete control of their budgets; before that, each university department received its funding directly from the state. Furthermore, Malan (2004:291) points to the powerful role of the Ministry of Education: transition to the Bologna degree structure is subject to subsequent evaluation of the Ministry of Education, where a qualification's non-compliance with Ministry requirements can affect the funding of the university offering it. The overly central policy-making in France has led to problems in tertiary education. Derouet and Normand (2008) refer to the policy of 'pushing through' 80% of school leavers to university, leading to high dropout rates.

Where specific language policy is concerned, the Loi Toubon (1994) is a law regarding language policy whose purpose, it appears, is to rigorously defend the French language as 'a key element in the heritage and personality of France'.[7] It requires in general that the French language must be used on French territory. Some of its stipulations are wide-ranging, not to say heavy-handed: article 6, for instance, requires that any event, seminar or convention in France must be accompanied by documentation in French, and texts presented must at least include a summary in French. The only exception allowed is for events exclusively organized for 'foreigners'. Strangely, the law recognises the existence of regional languages in France, and says that it is not against their use, although it seems clear that its provisions do not encourage the use of regional languages in the absence of French.

Article 11.1 stipulates that

[7] http://www.dglf.culture.gouv.fr/droit/loi-gb.htm , accessed 18.8.2013

> The language of instruction, examinations and competitive examinations, as well as dissertations in State and private educational institutions shall be French, except for cases justified by the need to teach foreign and regional languages and cultures or where the teachers are associate teachers or guest teachers. Foreign schools or schools specially set up to teach foreign nationals as well as institutions providing instruction of an international nature are not bound by this obligation.

Co-operation between HEIs would seem to be protected by this article. However, Young (1997) notes that Georgia Institute of Technology was taken to court in France, for having an English-language website advertising a campus in Metz, France. The case was dismissed on a 'technicality' (1997: A26). The proliferation of Bachelor's degrees taught wholly or partly in English at French universities, and links to them online, suggests that such a court case involving HEIs is unlikely in future.[8]

For the purposes of this analysis, it is not assumed that the Loi Toubon excludes the learning of foreign languages in France, though it might severely affect their public profile. In fact, the learning of a foreign language is required in secondary schools, though the particular language is not specified. Bonnet (2007: 670) observes that in 2005, the Ministry of Education stipulated that CEF level B2 be obtained in a foreign language at the end of upper secondary education (i.e. the tenth school year). Moreover, level C1 should be reached by those who have attended language classes until the end of upper secondary school. He comments that this standardization creates problems of its own with regard to quality assurance, in other words establishing that a test purporting to be at B2 level really *is* at B2 level.

2.4.3.1 IUT (Instituts Universitaires de Technologie)

The IUTs are institutes integrated in French universities which offer training for specific occupations, for example business administration, civil engineering, and electrical engineering (Malan, 2004, Pilkington, 2012). As might be expected, their activities are regulated by federal law. Article 2 of the *Decret IUT* states [my transation]:

[8] http://www.campusfrance.org/en/page/programs-taught-english accessed 20.8.2013

> *Les instituts universitaires de technologie dispensent un formation initiale et continue un enseignement supérieur destiné à préparer aux fonctions d'encadrement technique et professionnel dans certains secteurs de la production, de la recherche appliquée et des services.*
>
> The university institutes of technology provide initial and on-going training in higher education designed to prepare [students] for skilled employment in technical and vocational fields in certain sectors of production, applied research and services.

The focus on preparation for skilled employment is clear and reflects the Swiss FHG, which refers to preparation for an occupation. In French law (*Classification du personnel ouvrier*, 1996), the term 'cadre' has a specific meaning: employees at this level are in lower management and must be capable of supervising those at lower levels. Therefore, the *Decret IUT* goes so far as specifying that education at an IUT should steer graduates towards (lower) management positions. This is the only reference to management level in any of the policy documents encountered so far, and further research at the micro level would be needed to shed light on its importance.

While the IUTs are vocationally focused institutes at universities and our main focus here since the partner institution in France is an IUT, this should not obscure the fact that academic freedom is guaranteed in French law (French Education Code, 2000). Admittedly academic freedom is not a well-defined notion; it is a subject of debate and in any case has limitations in practice. However, I intend to argue in the conclusion of this chapter that the academic tradition is important for the preservation of a critical perspective.

2.5 Discussion

The above review of official documents suggests that EU language policy defends multilingualism, and endorses language learning as a facilitator of mobility. This in turn is linked with employment, and generally with increased prosperity due to a linguistically skilled, mobile workforce. Above all, it seems that education should

prepare students for employment. The first issue that arises from this requirement is that it is not clear exactly how this should be done, nor what kind of employment is being referred to. A second issue is that it appears that education is being made a servant of economic concerns. The question is whether neo-liberal influences have unduly affected our students' learning experience by focusing only on what they 'need' to know, and depriving them of a critical perspective, which is surely important lest students become mere consumers of education as a marketable product, and not active participants in it.

Beyond this, however, the review of language policy has not uncovered any great degree of coherence. At the macro level, a commitment is made to plurilingualism. At the meso level, the only country to really support this aim is Switzerland, since France takes a protectionist view (*Loi Toubon*) and Germany still appears to conceive of itself as a monolingual state, though its constitution protects the rights of other population groups and languages. In terms of pedagogy, CLIL is mentioned by the European Commission, but this is not repeated at the national or regional level. The CEFR is possibly the most widely-mentioned document but, although influenced by the communicative approach (2.3.2), it does not amount to a pedagogy. Furthermore, although both macro and meso levels call for a preparation for the working world, there appear to be few suggestions at the meso level as to how this might be achieved.

Lynch (2006) refers to 'the trend of neo-liberalisation' in which education serves the needs of the market at the expense of its social and developmental duties. A key concern here is that language education may increasingly be conceived of as a socio-economic 'lubricant'; after all, its value is described in largely economic terms at the highest political level. Given the business focus of the degree programme, there is also a local pressure to 'give students what they need for work' – and, due to these pressures, one wonders whether a critical and academic element could be included in the English course being investigated here. The question is whether critical literacy, as defended in the literature by Benesch (2001) and others, has any place in a course with this background, where it could be argued that a neo-liberal agenda would dispense with themes not needed in the market. This view of education is revealed by

the OECD in a recent report (2014), where the OECD examines public spending on education and concludes (2014: 150) that investment in higher education is profitable:

> The net public return on investment for a man with tertiary education is over USD 105 000 across OECD countries – almost three times the amount of public investment in his education. For a woman, the public return is over USD 60 000, which is almost twice the amount of public investment in her education.

While the gender disparity in income across the OECD begs further comment, it is not the object of this study to pursue the matter further, other than to say that the 'public return' referred to above may not take into consideration the economic value of the unpaid work that women often do in the private (domestic) domain. In any case, the OECD seems to be concerned with the 'return on investment'. The challenging aspect of such views is that education is seen as an investment which is evaluated in terms of the economic benefits it can generate. This seems to leave little room for the development of critical thinking, ethics or aesthetics in its students, since the market value of these concepts is not immediately apparent. Indeed, such a view seems to dictate that students should accept their future roles in the workforce, and not challenge this as the desired outcome of their education.

However, it would in my view be too simplistic to believe that a concern with pragmatic issues and vocational training makes the practitioner a slave of a neo-liberal agenda. The concern with preparation for employment is enshrined in the law of all participating countries in the trinational programme, and this has to be respected by a practitioner in the local context. Nevertheless, it should not become the *only* concern of the syllabus: French, German and Swiss educational policy do not preclude a notion of academic freedom (French Education Code, 2000; Swiss Cantonal Contract, 2005; German Higher Education Law, 2006), and this, I would maintain, sanctions the inclusion of a reflective and critical element in any vocationally oriented course at the tertiary level. Academic freedom is, of course, a term in search of a definition, but in the context of this study it appears that HEIs could exercise such freedom by not allowing a policy concern with employment to dominate the English syllabus to the exclusion of other (reflective and/or critical) elements.

In other words, there needs to be more than a purely vocational focus, which can be supplemented by a critical focus, as I have already argued, and also by an academic (EAP) element, which in any case is indicated by a needs-centered (CLT) approach. One recalls Perellon's comment (2003: 357) that it would be misleading to see the Swiss HE landscape in purely binary terms (vocational vs. academic), and in my view this can likewise apply to the partner institutions in France and Germany. Notably, this review of policy has shown that neither French nor German educational policy has abandoned the idea of academic freedom, and this perhaps gives the practitioner a chance to pursue a kind of critical pragmatism (Pennycook, 1997). The question arises, then: in what way does this 'window' of academic freedom provide the UAS teachers an opportunity to admit more critical considerations to their teaching practice?

In the conclusion to this chapter, I have defended the importance of academic freedom as a safeguard of critical thinking. Nevertheless, even if academic freedom were not enshrined in the laws of Germany, France and Switzerland, I would argue that European language policy as reviewed in this chapter is not consistent or detailed enough to be treated as an exclusive inspiration for language policy at the micro level. I would therefore argue that macro- and meso-level language policy, by virtue of its incomplete nature, needs in any case to be interpreted by English teachers making decisions about curriculum content and focus.

3.0 Language Policy at Micro (Institutional and Departmental) Level

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to investigate language policy at the micro level (Baldauf, 2006). In this study, the micro level will be represented by the institutional and departmental level, within the trinational and trilingual Bachelor's degree described in earlier chapters. Up to now, the literature review has investigated language policy at the international and national levels, and the review is now being extended to the micro level for the sake of completeness. For the purposes of this investigation, 'institutional' policy will refer to language policies of the management at the three campuses, insofar as this can be determined, whereas 'departmental' policy will refer to the way in which the implementation of policies is pursued by lecturers.

It is something of a challenge to reflect critically on one's own professional practice, and to reconsider teaching practices that are by now second nature. This is even more so because ten years of experience in my present lecturing capacity suggests that there is less formal policy than tried and trusted procedures, which one might refer to as 'de facto' policy, to borrow a term from Shohamy (2007). Indeed, this appears to be a key difference between the micro level and higher policy levels. In this regard, Shohamy (2007:77) makes a distinction between language policy (LP) and language education policy (LEP) – the original emphasis has been maintained:

> While LP is concerned with decisions people make about languages and their uses in society, LEP refers to effecting these very decisions in the specific contexts of education, schools and universities, most often in relation to languages which are considered home, foreign and global. It is often the case that LEPs are stated explicitly through documents such as curricula or mission statements. Yet, at other times, LEPs are rather derived *implicitly* by examining a variety of de facto practices.

De facto practices, therefore, can be seen as an implicit form of policy. A Bachelor programme overview, or related school documents, may not deal exclusively or explicitly with language support, but may still yield interesting insights. Since language policy at the micro level can either be planned or de facto, I wish to argue that one form of policy is just as real as the other, and deserves equally serious consideration. Baldauf (2006) argues that language planning can take either overt (explicit, planned) and covert (implicit, unplanned) forms, and adds that the micro level is not well-researched. This seems to makes sense, since departmental and/or institutional practice may be 'under the radar' of research or official regulation. It remains to be seen to what extent language policy at micro (institutional and departmental) level is really of an explicit nature. As mentioned in Chapter 1, Barton (1994:52) encourages us to make visible the hidden power relations in literacy practices, so this chapter will seek to uncover any implicit, or de facto, practices that may be detected. My status as an insider is useful in this regard.

The 'hidden power relations' referred to above can, I would contend, be seen as differing interpretations of curriculum within an institution. Marsh and Willis (2007) distinguish between the planned curriculum (what is intended), enacted curriculum (what actually happens) and experienced curriculum (how this enactment affects those involved). Most teachers with practical experience will probably agree that these curricula may diverge from each other in form and content. The focus in this chapter is primarily on the planned and enacted curricula, especially in the sense that what management intends may (or may not) be enacted by teachers. On the other hand, Marsh (2009:4) states that the experienced curriculum 'actually refers to what happens in the classroom'. Experienced curriculum can therefore be influenced by

many factors, and hence addresses the effects of a policy, not the policy itself. The terms *enacted* and *experienced* curriculums in my view reinforce the point made by studies in critical literacy (e.g. Barton, 1994) to the effect that internal mechanisms and power relations can influence literacy practices.

Internal power relations can also be affected by external influences, and Chapter 2 made an attempt to consider these in the form of national and international policy documents. One observer who has referred to external influences is Pinar (2012), who claims that school curricula are a battleground, and states that in the United States, teachers have lost control of the curriculum to politicians. He suggests that curricula have been instrumentalised by politicians for their own ends, and criticizes the intrusion of business practices into the curriculum, in the sense that teachers, like managers, must be accountable for a 'bottom line'. There is little doubt that in Europe, the Bologna reform has led to a similar and closer focus on student success in their preparation for employment.

Where language support in the TP is concerned, the curriculum may not quite be a 'battleground' in the sense that Pinar describes. This is in part because the participating institutions have by definition a vocational focus, so that aspect is not really open to negotiation. However, the local English-language curriculum still operates under constraints. As will be seen, the TP management generally respects the importance of language support and entrusts teachers with a good deal of freedom when it comes to curriculum design, for which I for one am very grateful. Nevertheless, a de facto condition is usually attached: what is taught in language classes should not overlap with other (content) courses. The motivation for this in management is a wish to prevent redundancy: in a degree programme that moves between three campuses, there is a chance that content can be repeated, something which students have noticed in the past. This injunction to 'stay away' from content could be described as an example of a de facto (Shohamy, 2007) and implicit (Baldauf, 2006) policy, as it does not appear in any policy document, but reflects the de facto state of affairs. The investigation will now turn its focus to the institutional level, trying to give an account of both explicit and implicit language policy.

3.2 Institutional Level

As indicated above, research into institutional policy will be based on an analysis of policy documents and practices published at the respective universities in the context of the trinational programme. The basic language policy of the trinational programme is that semesters are alternately taught in German, French, and English. In other words, the first semester is taught in French, second in German, third in English, and again in French for the fourth, German in the fifth, English sixth and so on. English-language support classes take place in all semesters, resulting in a total of six semesters of English lessons. The English language classes are streamed into three CEFR-aligned groups (B2, C1, C2), where these CEFR levels are supposedly the minimum level of competence that the classes should have reached after six semesters of study. In addition to (or despite) this CEFR alignment, the French partner campus expects that one of the three languages is the mother tongue, and requires 'excellent' knowledge (*avoir d'excellentes connaissances*) of the other two. In general, it appears that an 'opposite-of-mother-tongue' approach is used at all campuses, whereby it is assumed that students do not have English as their mother tongue: a native French speaker will receive tuition in German and English, whereas a native German speaker will receive tuition in French and English.

The reason the administration traditionally gives for this arrangement is the fact that English is not an official language of any of the countries hosting the Bachelor programme. However, it does not allow for those who grow up bilingually, speaking English (or German or French) at home. The assumption that English is a 'foreign' language possibly accounts to some extent for the fact that English receives more teaching hours that French or German, as can be seen from the curriculum reproduced in Figure 3.1. Language support courses are depicted in green. At first sight, the curriculum may appear to be rather dry and not related to language policy, yet a closer reading of it yields certain insights into de facto language policy, or Shohamy's (2007) LEP. In particular, a closer look at the Languages module reveals that French, German and English are core language courses, whereas Spanish and Mandarin Chinese are electives. It also shows that whereas tuition in German and French stops after semester 4, English-language support continues up to and including semester 6. Figure 3.2 provides a clearer view of this arrangement.

Figure 3.1 Curricular Overview of the Trinational Programme

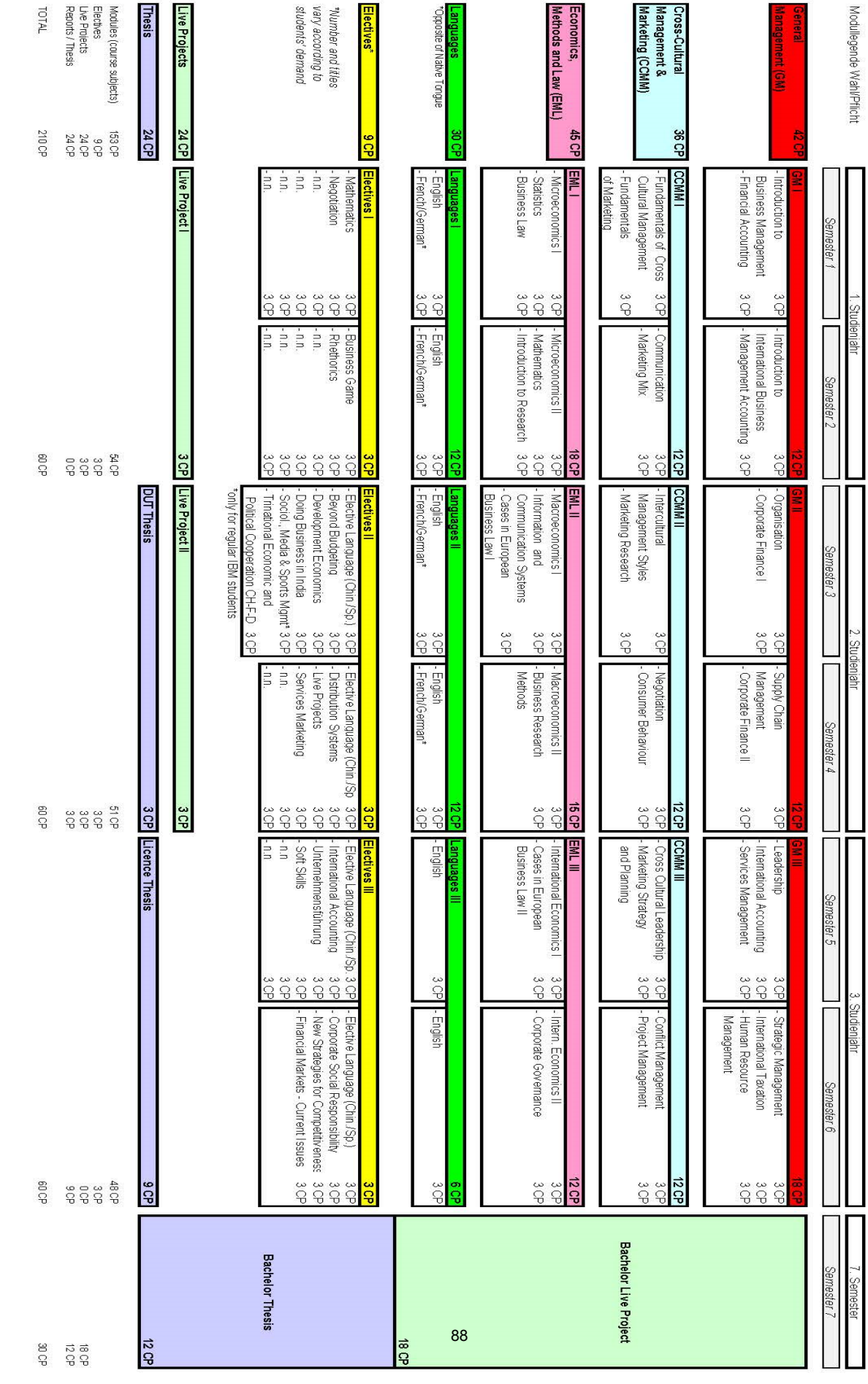
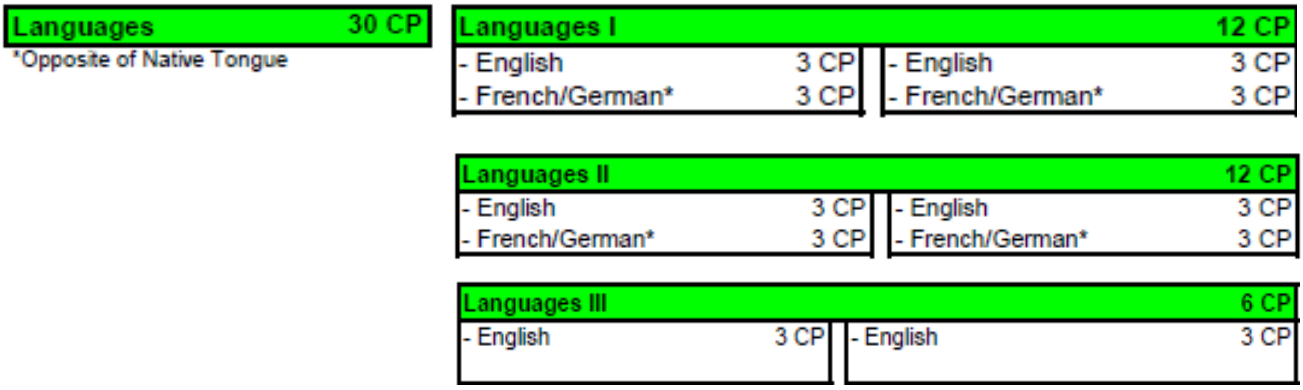
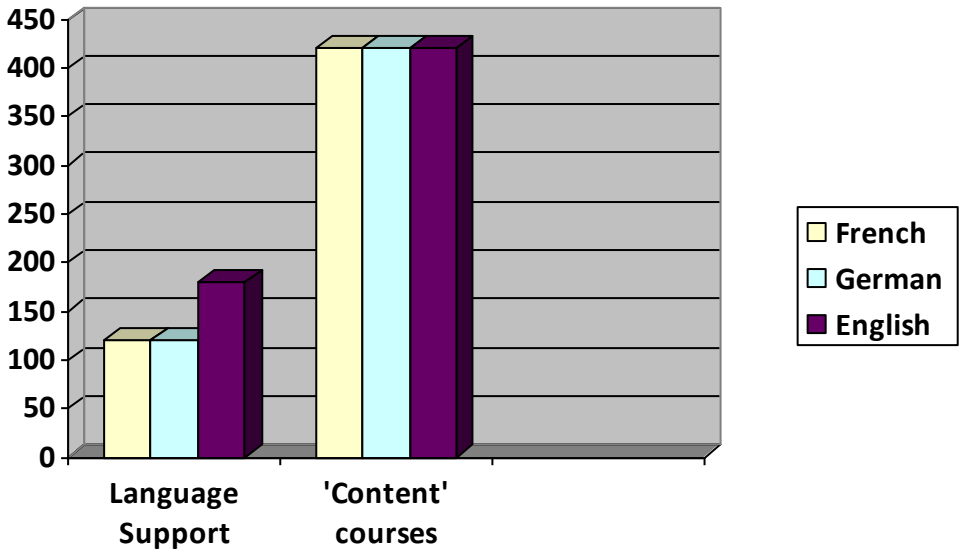


Figure 3.2 (CP = Credit Points)



English therefore appears to enjoy systemic privileges compared to French and German: in semesters five and six (Languages III), only English is taught. The 'Opposite of Native Tongue' provision is also visible (top left of Figure 3.2). Based on data from Figure 3.2, Figure 3.3 attempts to depict the comparison of the language support classes and the content in language instruction, in terms of learning and teaching hours. In local practice, one credit is normally seen as equivalent to 10 teaching and 20 self-study hours. The graph assumes that all content courses in France are taught in French, at the German campus in German, and so on. In practice, my twelve years of experience in the programme confirms that there are few departures from this general rule.

Figure 3.3 Content courses and language support expressed in hours taught



As can be seen, instruction in the so-called content courses is equally distributed between each language, which is not the case for language support. The 'Opposite of Mother Tongue' requirement firstly means that French and German students do not have the option of receiving LAP (Language for Academic Purposes) instruction in their own languages. Secondly, the 'Opposite of Native Tongue' provision means that only the French students are taught German, and only the German-speaking students have French lessons. However, they may receive language support in English in all semesters. If student numbers were taken into account, English is even more dominant in terms of language support than the number of teaching hours/credits suggests, since all students receive English tuition, whereas only the French receive German lessons, and only the Germans and (German-speaking) Swiss receive French lessons. This practice is based on the assumption that students thereby receive language support in the areas where they most need it.

Yet this arrangement, in which only English language support is offered in the last two semesters, is open to challenge. In the brochure produced at the French campus, German is given the same amount of teaching hours as English. The relevant portion of the brochure is reproduced in Figure 3.4, where the language courses are highlighted in yellow.

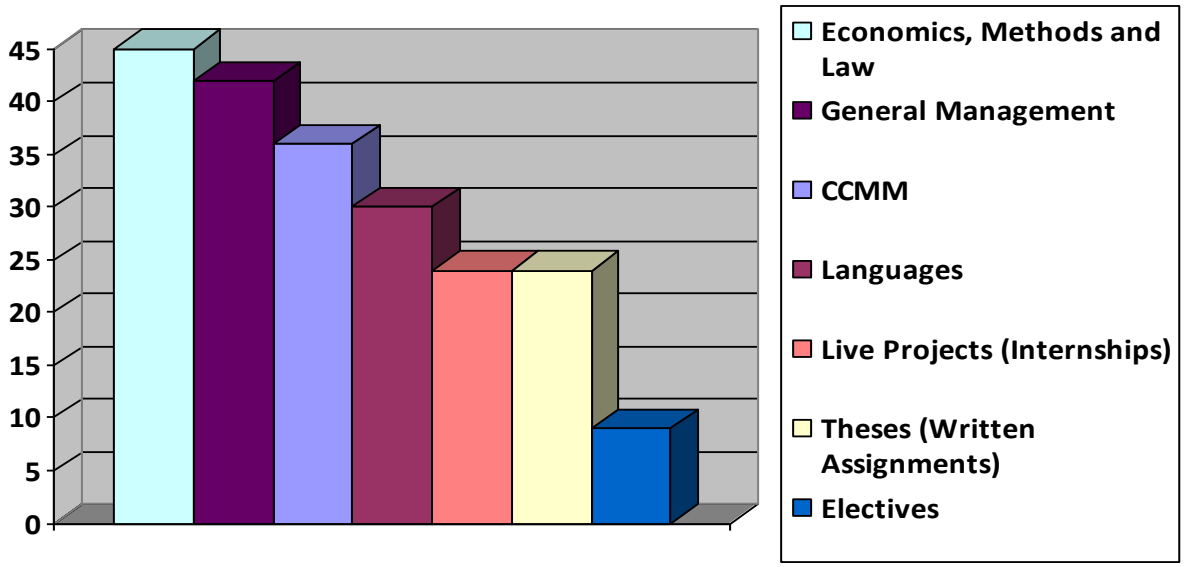
Figure 3.4 Excerpt from Brochure, French Campus

Année 1		Année 2		Année 3	
1 - Colmar	2 - Lörrach	3 - Bâle	4 - Colmar	5 - Lörrach	6 - Bâle
Économie d'entreprise	Management international	Organisation	Logistique	Ressources humaines	Stratégie d'entreprise
Comptabilité	Gestion des coûts	Finance I	Finance II	Comptabilité internationale	Ressources humaines
Marketing	Marketing mix	Information et systèmes	Comportement consommateur	Stratégie marketing	Gestion des conflits
Management interculturel	Communication	Styles interculturels	Négociation	Management des services	Gestion d'équipes
Micro-économie	Micro-économie	Macro-économie	Macro-économie	Économie internationale	Économie internationale
Droit commercial	Mathématiques	Recherche en gestion	Recherche marketing	Leadership international	Gouvernance
Statistiques	Études commerciales	Études de cas	Enquête marketing	Études de cas	Fiscalité
Anglais	Anglais	Anglais	Anglais	Anglais	Anglais
Allemand	Allemand	Allemand	Allemand	Allemand	Allemand
+ options	+ options	+ options	+ options	+ options	+ options
STAGE 12 SEMAINES		STAGE 12 SEMAINES		STAGE 12 SEMAINES	

[*Année* = Year; *Anglais* = English; *Allemand* = German] Figure 3.4 is an excerpt from a recent (2014) brochure available for prospective students at the French campus. Its contents relating to language support in the fifth and sixth (highlighted in yellow) are interesting, since it reinterprets the standard curriculum. When contacted for comment, the French administration referred to plans (currently under discussion) to introduce French and German as electives in the fifth and sixth semesters. This suggests that the dominance of English in the fifth and sixth semesters may be challenged. For the moment, though, English is 'first among equals', at least where language support is concerned. However, one must also retain realistic expectations: the extent to which the trinational programme encourages the learning of three languages is not, to the best of my knowledge, equaled in any other bachelor degree in the trinational area (see 3.4 below).

Another insight into de facto policy that can be gained from the curriculum represented in Figure 3.1 is the inclusion of internships (short periods of employment) in the programme. The internships in the trinational programme are described as 'Live Projects' in Figure 3.1: in simple terms, students are given academic credit for being employed, and then further credits for writing reports of, and making presentations relating to, their working experiences. Chapter 2 of this study described how, at both the international and national level, there was a strong emphasis in official policy documents on the necessity that education should prepare students for employment. Whether this aspect of the programme is a direct result of language policy at higher levels is difficult to determine; there is no requirement, for example, that students complete their work placements in a particular (English, French or German) language environment. Suffice it to say that the degree has a strong practical component, giving students academic credit for working in local companies and writing reports about their experiences. The emphasis on the 'practical' part of the curriculum becomes evident when the credit points by subject area are plotted next to each other in a bar chart as seen in Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5 Relative number of credit points in the TP (trinational programme) by subject area



(In this figure, CCMM refers to Cross-Cultural Marketing and Management). When one considers that the Theses are primarily based on working experience in the internships, the practical part of the course acquires even more weight than this graph suggests.

An interesting question is posed by the fact that the hybrid module CCMM (Cross-Cultural Marketing and Management) touches on areas which might also be taught in an EAP course. The management is keen to prevent any possible overlap since such overlaps can result in repetition of material, which in turn leads to student complaints. Therefore, the administration emphasises that English classes should primarily be language-oriented, and not deal with subjects that touch on communication in a more applied sense, since these are understood to be addressed by the courses in CCMM. For instance, in semester 2 CCMM includes a subject simply entitled Communication, while in semester 4 it includes a course in Negotiation. However, in another, German-medium Bachelor of Business Administration taught at the Swiss campus, Negotiation is a subject taught in English by English teachers, as is Business Communication. For the English department, I would argue that this policy (of non-overlap between CCMM and the Language Modules) is a significant de facto policy, since it represents a demarcation of what can (and cannot) be done in English support classes.

In summary, the picture of the institutional level that emerges is that de facto policy (Shohamy, 2007) is strongly oriented towards language support for non-native speakers, preparation for employment by the inclusion of internships in the Bachelor programme, and also towards a view of language support as being separated from content. This view of micro-level policy is based on an interpretation of the semester programme (see Figure 3.2 above) and my experience in the trinational programme; although the semester programme clearly sets out the de facto situation, there is no explicit language policy in the sense of a formal document explaining the concept of language support. A possible reason for this might be that local administrators are not normally English teachers and shy away from making formal policy in subjects in which they are not experts. It is notable, however, that this does not prevent the administration from setting de facto limits for English-language support, in the sense that it should not stray too far into the content side of the curriculum.

3.3 Departmental Level

As stated above, the distinction between the departmental level and institutional level for the purposes of this study is that departmental-level policy, be it explicit or de facto, is to some extent under the control of English lecturers. Administrators/managers have precedence in the school hierarchy, but teachers may find ways to pursue their own interests in addition to, or in defiance of, management intentions, and these may be reflected in the enacted curriculum (Marsh and Willis, 2007). It is not my intention to suggest that a difference between the planned and enacted curricula is a good thing in itself, or that teachers are somehow nobly resisting an oppressive ideology if they diverge from the planned curriculum. However, differences between planned and enacted curriculums may exist, and provide insight into the way in which English-language teaching is conceptualized by lecturers.

Some words of explanation are required to introduce the English programme at the departmental level. At the beginning of the Bachelor programme, students are given what is termed a placement test, which has the purpose of separating the classes into three strands of supposedly differing competence. Using terms borrowed from the CEFR, the three classes are given the labels B2, C1 and C2, the assumption being that these terms represent the CEFR level each class should have achieved after six

semesters of study. (The same approach is used to organize French and German classes, which are offered either at the B2 or C1 level, whereas English is taught at the B2, C1 and C2 levels.) In practice, three English classes of about 20 students each are formed per level B2/C1/C2; it is customary for each participating institution to admit 20 students each year, making a total annual intake of 60 students. These are assigned to one of the three English streams according to their performance using the aforementioned placement test.

The local practice of creating three English streams was introduced from the establishment of the trinational programme (2000) onwards, so it is institutionally well-entrenched. However, a concerted effort by the English department brought about a modification of the system in 2013: from the fourth semester onwards, the B2 stream will be absorbed into the C1 stream effectively creating two C1 groups, apart from the C2 group. The change was primarily made due to complaints by successive student intakes that the B2 level was not a sufficiently rigorous goal for six semesters of study. The adaptation of the system was also necessary for systemic reasons: for entrance purposes, the Swiss campus requires a minimum B2 level in all three languages, which also does not sit well with the idea that students might then be allotted to a class which has B2 as its goal after six semesters of study.

To assist the process of streaming, it is a matter of internal practice that the various classes be referred to by their CEFR titles, and in general are accepted by students and staff alike, despite the various questions thrown up. For example, the placement test (represented in Figure 3.6) is used to separate students into groups of 'higher' or 'lower' competence, but such alignment is difficult to establish in a reliable fashion. Thus CEFR alignment is a useful, but questionable, tool for 'separating out' groups of supposedly differing competence, since these separations may be on shaky theoretical ground.

However, it is much easier to criticize this use of the CEFR than it is to find a viable alternative. One cannot ignore the fact that the CEFR enjoys wide acceptance with students and staff alike, perhaps because it is relatively simple to understand and simplifies complex decisions about language competence. The administration's willingness to admit students with widely differing language competences is

formalised, and also set some limits by the CEFR – in theory, a student should have at least a B1 level to be admitted to the programme. Whatever the case, a rejection of the CEFR on theoretical grounds is not an adequate response in that it overlooks the fact that the CEFR is a key part of the language policy observed in a stable trinational, trilingual Bachelor programme, and is widely used in other tertiary contexts. At the very least, one must concede that the CEFR is a useful administrative tool, but in my opinion, it lacks the theoretical depth that might help teachers engage in critical reflection of their pedagogical practice.

3.4 Language Support at comparable institutions

'Comparable institutions' in this sense means those in Germany, France or Switzerland which also offer binational or trinational Bachelor degrees. Practically all of these are hosted in the 'Dreiländereck' where the three countries meet (TMO, 2014). The *Dreiländereck*, or 'three-country corner', refers to the tri-regional upper Rhine area, where the borders of France, Germany and Switzerland meet. A map of this area is represented in Figure 3.6. At 21,500 km2, this region is slightly larger than Gauteng, the smallest South African province, and has 6 million inhabitants, its population thus being only half that of Gauteng (Trinationale Metropolregion Oberrhein, 2014; SA Census, 2011).

In this region, there are at least twelve trinational Bachelor and Master programmes in operation (TMO, 2014), the majority of which are concerned with engineering or life sciences. Apart from this, the region hosts other disciplines mostly at the Master's level: ancient history, law, European public administration, and multilingual web design (TMO, 2014).

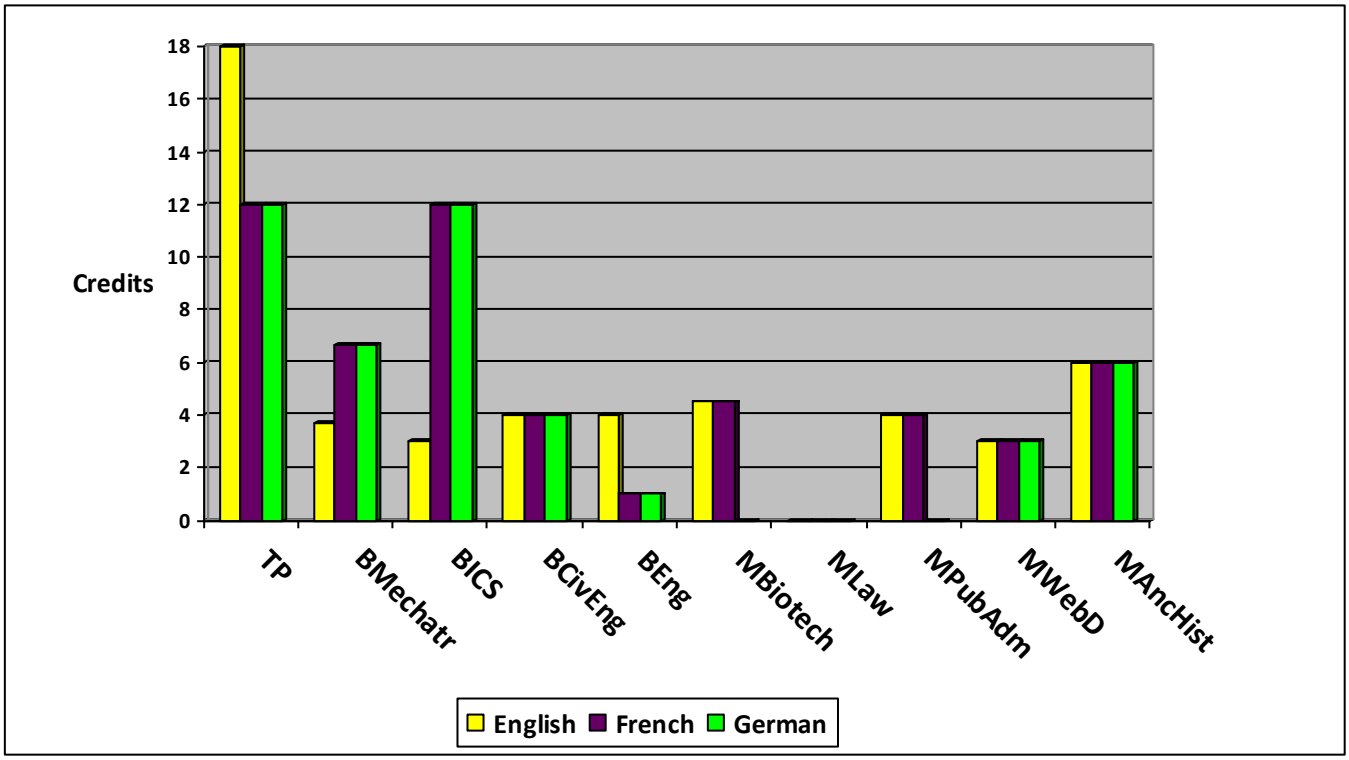
Figure 3.6 The *Dreiländereck*, or Upper Rhine Region (adapted from TMO, 2014).

In order to provide an overview of language support at these institutions, Figure 3.7 will compare ten programmes in which information relating to language teaching could be ascertained from module descriptions (TMO, 2014).

As background information to Figure 3.7, one should note that English is included as a teaching language in only two degrees, the trinational programme (TP) and MBiotech (MSc in Biotechnology). Secondly, the graph indicates only the maximum number of credits that can be studied in any language; it does not indicate that French and German are normally offered as alternatives (the norm being that students study whichever is not their first language). The simple overview provided by Figure 3.7 yields at least three important insights. Firstly, it appears that the language of instruction in any course has no direct bearing on the number of credits that are allotted to language support for that course. The TP and MBiotech are both partly

taught in English, but there is no relation between the number of credits set aside for language learning in either degree programme. The MLaw course, which is primarily taught in German, appears to offer no language support courses at all (EUCOR, 2014). Otherwise there is a wide variety in the number of credits allotted per language, regardless of the language of instruction.

Figure 3.7 Language Support Credits per Language and Degree, Bachelor (B) or Master (M)



TP = Trinational Programme in Business Administration which is the context of this study;

BMechatr = Mechanical, Electronic and Informatics Engineering;

BICS = Bachelor of Information and Communication Systems

BCivEng = Bachelor of Civil Engineering;

BEng = Bachelor of Engineering;

MBiotech = Master of Biotechnology;

MLaw = Master of Law;

MPubAdm = Master of European Public Administration;

MWebD = Master of Multilingual Web Design;

MAncHist= Master of Ancient History. (TMO, 2014)

The second insight, I would argue, is that the choices regarding language(s) of instruction made in these courses reveal a cheerful state of disarray where de facto language policy is concerned. This is a possible confirmation of the insufficiently detailed language policy revealed by the investigation of the macro policy level in this literature review. However, an alternative interpretation is that although language policy makes some recommendations, higher-level policy plays a secondary role to institutional policy-making.

Thirdly, Figure 3.7 shows that no Master's or Bachelor's course in the Upper Rhine region gives English nearly the same weight as the TP, which makes TP an outlier. However, when compared with other degrees in business administration, the TP might be less of an exception: my experience, based on teaching in other programmes in the UAS School of Business, suggests that language learning is given more prominence in business studies programmes than in programmes of a more technical nature.

3.5 Commonalities at macro, meso and micro level

The review of policy levels done in Chapters 2 and 3 of this study (international, national and institutional levels) has been necessary in order to determine what influences the policy landscape might exert on the trinational programme's English syllabus. In the previous chapter I concluded that European language policy as reviewed in Chapter 2 is not coherent or detailed enough to be treated as an exclusive inspiration for language policy at the micro level. However, some themes were identified at the macro level:

- Promotion of Multilingualism
- Perception of Language learning as a factor favouring mobility and employability
- Support for CEFR and CLT
- Linkage of language learning and critical thinking

In the context of the Bologna Declaration (2.2.1), and also in 2.5, I discussed the Declaration's emphasis on employability as a possible indication of neo-liberal influence (Shore and Wright, 2000; Hursh, 2005; Lynch, 2006). Nevertheless, I have

also noted that due to the vocational focus of the participating institutions, it seems fruitless to question a concern with preparation for employment in the syllabus, as long as this does not become its only concern.

The review of meso-level language policy in 2.4 suggested that at the national level, insofar as there is explicit language policy, language policy did not reveal much consistency either in terms of agreement between France, Germany and Switzerland, or in terms of agreement with the macro level. At the macro level, a commitment is made to plurilingualism ('mother tongue plus two'). At the meso level, only Switzerland, a non-EU country, really supports this policy, while France undertakes to ensure that, in most contexts, the status of French as the dominant national language cannot be threatened (*Loi Toubon*). Meanwhile, it appears that Germany's language policy still primarily provides for a monolingual state, although its constitution protects the rights of other population groups and languages. In terms of pedagogy, CLIL is mentioned by the European Commission, but this is not repeated at the national or regional levels. The discussion in 2.3.1 suggests that the CEFR is a de facto standard applied in all three countries, although it does not receive much specific attention in language policy.

Unsurprisingly, the institutional (micro) level revealed the most direct policy influences on the teaching curriculum, with reference to, for example, the requirement that language support should not 'overlap' with content courses. In 3.5.1-3.5.2 below, significant trends and commonalities that arise from the review in Chapters 2 and the discussion in Chapter 3 so far will be discussed.

3.5.1 Promoting Multilingualism

The EU (2010) policy of 'mother tongue plus two' is unevenly supported in the comparison of language support in various degrees, though, of all the programmes considered, the programme that is the object of this study has the most credits devoted to language support. In my view, it therefore has a clear conscience where the development of multilingualism is concerned.

Allowing for the multilingual nature of the student population remains a challenge, however. Auerbach (1993) has noted that much ELT practice follows an English-only policy, and experience suggests that this is generally the case in the TP's English classes as well. In this regard, Jessner (2008) concedes that research into multilingualism from a pedagogical perspective is limited and that multilingualism, particularly the area of third-language acquisition, is a young field of research. She adds (2008: 3) that 'until very recently, the only guarantee for successful instructed language learning seemed to be strict separation of the language in the multilingual learner and in the classroom'.

Canagarajah (2007) argues that existing concepts of language learning need to adapted, not abandoned, to allow for the multidimensional nature of language learning in multilingual communities. On behalf of the Council of Europe's Language Policy Division, Beacco et al (2010) propose a curriculum to encourage plurilingual language learning, but this focuses on the primary and secondary school levels, so it may be less relevant at the tertiary level. Furthermore, Van der Walt (2013:95) describes an approach that treats students' own multilingualism as a resource which can be used to negotiate the challenges of higher education, but warns against over-optimism, cautioning that these students may not wish to join the community of a language they learn. Furthermore, she rejects the idea of a single multilingual pedagogy: the situation and student bodies of HEIs may vary (2013: 125).

Returning to the trinational programme's (TP) language curriculum, I conclude that further research would be required to arrive at an authoritative assessment of the 'Opposite of Mother Tongue' policy in the curriculum, best visible in Figure 3.2 above, which intends that students are offered language support in two foreign languages, but not their native tongue. On one hand, this can be taken as support of the 'mother tongue plus two' policy or plurilingualism proposed by the EU (2013). It may also be argued that the teaching of content in a foreign language might suggest the possibility of implementing CLIL at the institutional level. Fortanet-Gomez (2013) advocates an approach that combines multilingualism in higher education with CLIL. However, due to the institutional traditions discussed above, which require the strict separation of 'content' and 'language' courses, there is currently very little co-operation between language and content teachers at the departmental level. CLIL is a pedagogy that

receives support at the macro level (European Commission, 2012) although it is not applied in the local context; the issue of if and how CLIL could be implemented in the syllabus will be deferred to the final chapter of this study.

Although it is not the goal of this study to determine what conditions favour the establishment of trinational and/or bilingual or trilingual courses of study, one may risk some comments in this direction. Compared with the relative lack of trinational (German, French and Swiss) programmes elsewhere, it is tempting to conclude that the unique proximity offered by the Upper Rhine region, a well-developed tertiary landscape and effective cross-border co-operation were the three factors that played a decisive role in the creation of so many trinational programmes here, rather than any supporting language policy or legal framework.

Those who (with some justification) regard English as an aggressor displacing other languages in higher education (e.g. Phillipson and Skuttnab-Kangas, 1996; Swales, 1997; Phillipson, 2006) can see that this is not really the case in the Upper Rhine region. In this area, although English is prominent as a language of teaching and learning in 10% of all degree programmes, the tradition of teaching engineering-related degrees in German or French seems particularly well-entrenched. This is significant when one considers the general post-Bologna march towards English in higher education; one report suggests that there was a 38% increase in the number of English-medium Master's courses between 2011 and 2013 alone (IEN, 2013). However, I would argue that the case of the TP suggests that this trend is not as universal as one might suspect: it seems that local languages such as French and German with a strong academic tradition can continue to exist, and even thrive, alongside the general trend towards English. In the context of the TP, English has clearly not displaced the local languages of French and German; in fact, the three languages enjoy broadly equivalent status.

3.5.2 Perception of Language Learning as a factor favouring mobility and employment

As stated in 2.2.3, Article 165.3 of the TFEU (Treaty on Functioning of European Union), a most-senior policy document in EU terms, states that:

> 2. Union action shall be aimed at:
>
> – developing the European dimension in education, particularly through the teaching and dissemination of the languages of the Member States,
> – encouraging mobility of students and teachers, by encouraging *inter alia*, the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study,
> – promoting cooperation between educational establishments [...]

Student mobility and the dissemination of languages are therefore mentioned in the same context. Furthermore, as noted in 2.2.1, the Bologna Agreement intended to promote student mobility by establishing of a common system of credits (ECTS), although, as pointed out by Erling and Hilgendorf (2006: 270), explicit statements with regard to language policy are absent from the Declaration. Macro-level language policies, however, make the link between language competence and mobility clear. One of the main aims of the Lisbon Strategy (2000), discussed in 2.2.4.4, was to improve employability. To achieve this during the onset of the credit crisis in 2007, the European Commission (2007) produced 'A coherent framework of indicators and benchmarks for monitoring the Lisbon objectives', in which it reiterated its concern with increasing mobility:

> The benchmarks for assessing the modernisation of higher education are that of devoting at least 2% of GDP (including both public and private funding) by 2015 to modernising higher education and that of increasing by 15% the number of graduates in mathematics, science and technology by 2010. Progress will be measured using the following three core indicators: higher education graduates; transnational mobility of students in higher education; investment in education and training.

As discussed in 2.2.4.4, the link between employability and language learning is also made clear in several documents, for example a publication of the European Commission (2011) entitled 'Recommendations on how to achieve a better match between the demand and the supply of language skills on the labour market'.

If one influence can be seen to extend through all levels, it is the requirement that students be prepared for employment. At the micro level, this is strongly reflected in the curriculum, and indeed most other degrees mentioned in Figure 3.10 include work- or practice-related phases. I would argue that the desire to prepare students for future employment through internships can be seen to reflect a pragmatic approach. The English syllabus should presumably prepare students not only for future employment, but also for these internships, since some larger companies in the tri-regional area have adopted English as their office language. However, the notion of a pragmatic language syllabus is controversial. Pennycook (1997: 256) argues that pragmatism runs the risk of defending and confirming 'norms, beliefs and ideologies that maintain inequitable social and cultural relations', a view supported by Benesch (2001). Furthermore, the undertaking to prepare students for employment raises issues of the supposed influence of neo-liberalism (e.g. Lynch, 2006). I will attempt to address both these concerns in the next paragraph.

In my view, the critical dismissal of pragmatism (e.g. Pennycook, 1997) requires further substantiation. Pragmatism, at least in the local tradition of vocational education as offered at UASs, seems to offer students promising perspectives, and in Switzerland, at the very least, a recent report suggests that it is perceived to be equivalent to a university education in terms of career and earning potential (Die Welt, 2015). This study will therefore assume that a form of critical pragmatism is appropriate in the local context. Secondly, as I argued in 2.5, it is too simplistic to conclude that a concern with pragmatic issues and vocational training makes the English syllabus a servant of a supposed neo-liberal agenda. Firstly, preparation for employment is enshrined in the law of all participating countries in the trinational programme, a factor which practitioners cannot simply ignore. As I pointed out in 2.5, however, French, German and Swiss educational policy do not preclude a notion of academic freedom (French Education Code, 2000; Swiss Cantonal Contract, 2005; German Higher Education Law, 2006). This, I argued, makes possible the inclusion of a reflective and critical element in any vocationally oriented course at tertiary level. Academic freedom is not easily defined, but in my view English teachers can exercise it by not allowing a concern with employment to exclude reflective and/or critical elements.

3.5.3 Reliance on CEFR and CLT

Several critics (e.g. Weir, 2005; Hulstijn, 2007; Little, 2007; Alderson, 2007) criticize the open-endedness of the CEFR's descriptors, and doubt both the validity of its empirical basis and the assumptions it appears to make about second-language acquisition (SLA). However, these critical misgivings have apparently not lessened the CEFR's initial impact and implementation. Beyond its use in Switzerland (EMBP, 2010), France (Bonnet, 2007) and Germany[9], this study uncovered widespread evidence of its use in L2 settings: Turkey (Glover, 2011), the Netherlands (Lowie et al, 2010), Italy (Newbold, 2009); Japan (Rappleye et al, 2011; Nakatani, 2012), China (Gilardi, 2012) and Spain (Neff-van Aertselaer, 2013). Within Europe, Barrault-Méthy (2012: 191) comments that both the EU and the Council of Europe endorse use of the CEFR for standardizing language learning. At the micro level, it was revealed in 3.2 that TP students are put into three CEFR-aligned streams.

As pointed out in 2.3.2, CLT is the dominant pedagogy in English-language teaching at present (Jacobs and Farrell, 2003; Richards, 2006; Magnan, 2007, Kramsch, 2014). While language policy covered in the review did not explicitly refer to CLT, it is implied in several contexts. CLT, with its focus on student needs (Richards, 2006: 11), seems to be a suitable pedagogy where preparation for employment is concerned. A CLT-influenced pedagogy assumes that students can only develop effective language skills 'if the language has relevance for their lives and if they are given ample opportunity to practise them with their peers' (O'Sullivan, 2001:52; see also Richards, 2006; Jacobs and Farrell, 2003). The TP is by definition a Bachelor's degree in business administration, and in this context, it comes as no surprise that the English-language support in the TP is generally work-related; this underlined by the fact that the six semesters of English lessons are referred to as Business English 1-6. As pointed out in 2.3.2, the CLT is also linked to the CEFR, which plays an important role in micro-level practices.

[9] http://www.ls-bw.de/dienstleistungen/beruflschulen/pruefungen/kmk/KMK-Leitfaden_1_2013.pdf/view?searchterm=GER%20B2 , accessed 20.8.2013

3.5.4 The linkage of language learning and critical thinking

In the survey of language policy in chapter 2 (2.2.4), critical thinking, in addition to foreign language learning, was a key competency that among seven others contributed to (lifelong) learning, as well as to 'personal fulfilment, active citizenship, social cohesion and employability in a knowledge society' (EUR-Lex,2006b). While this macro-level policy seems to reflect a rather simplistic and even inflated view of the value of certain 'key competencies', I emphatically agree that critical thinking and language learning are complementary. Where the meso level is concerned, I pointed out in 2.5 that all three countries defend academic freedom (French Education Code, 2000; Swiss Cantonal Contract, 2005; German Higher Education Law, 2006), and this, I argued, supports the inclusion of a reflective and critical element in any vocationally oriented course at the tertiary level.

Wallace (2002) argues that a language-learning pedagogy which contents itself with preparing for everyday situations (i.e. CLT, as discussed in 2.3.2) does not provide students with a language of critique to reflect on their experiences. In my view, such reflection is at the micro level a basic precondition for the development of both academic literacy and a necessary critical literacy, specifically a critical pragmatism (Allison, 1996). In the academic setting of the TP, in which students are not simply required to regurgitate what has been learned, but to evaluate it in the light of experience and apply it to internships (see 3.2 above), I maintain that both academic literacy and critical pragmatism are important. A specific kind of academic literacy (with strong intercultural elements) is required for TP students to make sense of the content they study at three campuses; moreover, I would maintain that a certain kind of critical literacy, in particular a critical pragmatism, is necessary for students to deal with their internships, and in general with the applied nature of their studies. In Chapter 6, I will argue that case studies provide a good means for the employment of an applied critical approach.

To my mind, academic literacy on its own, as a critique of academic practices (Lea and Street, 1998) is not sufficient to equip TP students for their studies. Generally speaking, resistance does not amount to a pedagogy, and the critical-literacies approach has itself been accused of being prescriptive and dogmatic (Hadley and

Harwood, 2004). It seems, therefore, that a form of critical pragmatism as defended by Allison (1996) and Pennycook (1997) would better inform the concept of language support in the trinational programme (TP) that provides the context of this study. Where student literacy practices are concerned, Hyland (2006: 123) reminds us that the academic literacies model (Lea and Street, 1998) is based on research done on L1 students. This is an important point: one must remember that L2 students may have acquired academic literacies in other languages; even in the TP, a majority of their studies will not take place in English (the Bachelor's is basically one-third German-medium, one-third French, and one-third English). Instruction in all three languages focuses on business administration, in this sense building a 'common core' of concepts and practices in which students can become literate. In my view, Morgan and Ramanathan (2005: 151) refer to this when they emphasise that there are other 'cognitive and semiotic processes involved in the production and reception of texts'. What I am therefore arguing here is that English does not bear the burden of developing students' academic literacy, or critical literacy in general, alone; indeed, my experience suggests that the English syllabus does not contain many critical features, although it remains to be seen to what extent the data supports this impression.

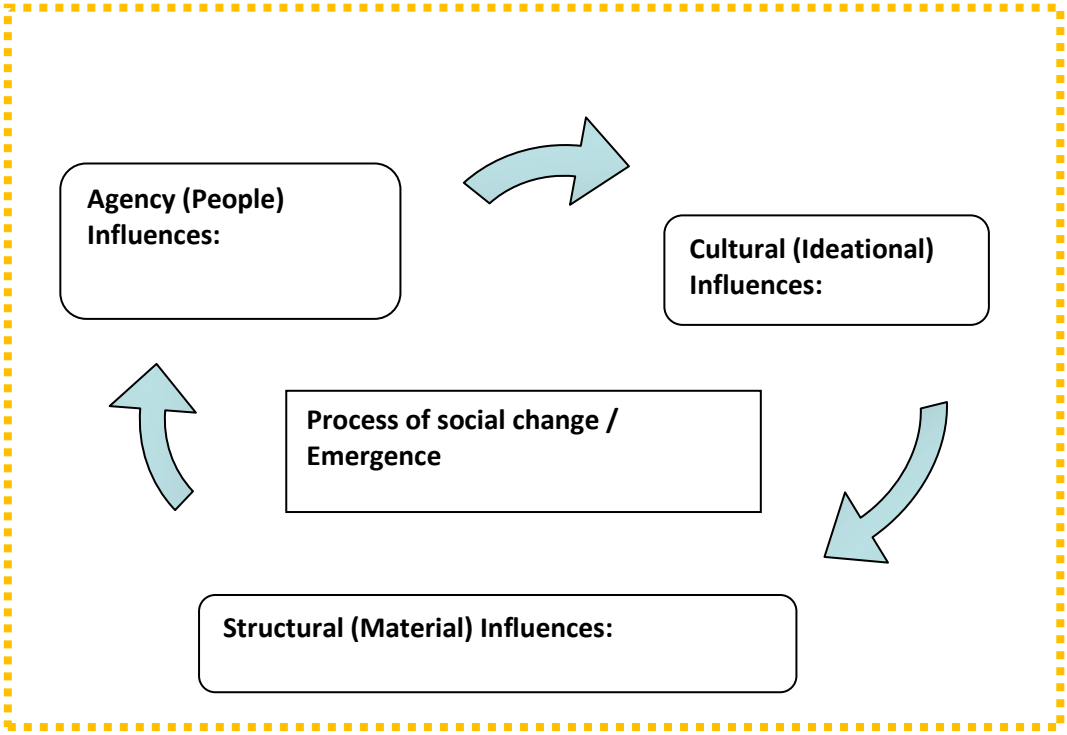
3.6 Conclusions

I have pointed out above that while multilingualism is promoted at the macro level, and in a de facto sense at the micro (institutional) level, it is not strongly supported at the meso level. It appears that a 'trickle-down' model of policymaking cannot account for this situation: policies made at the higher level are not simply handed down to the next (adjacent) level. While broader themes are clearly evident at the macro level, e.g. promotion of multilingualism, they are neglected at the meso level, although there is de facto support for them at the micro level (e.g. trilingual Bachelor's degree). Another 'victim' of this inconsistency is CLIL, which receives strong support at the macro level, but not at the meso or micro levels, although there is some evidence of its implementation at primary and secondary schools in Switzerland (Serra, 2008) and at secondary schools in Germany (Bosenius, 2009: 20).

As mentioned in 1.6, this study will use analytical tools provided by critical realism. A central tenet of critical realism is that reality is stratified, and that these strata can

influence each other. In fact, I wish to argue that while it is conceivable that policy levels can influence each other (and surely it is the intention of legislators that their policies are implemented by institutions and individuals!), there are other strata at work that can better account for the fact that concepts like multilingualism can be supported at the macro and micro levels while 'skipping over' most of the meso level, with the exception of Switzerland. The three forces that Archer (1995) sees as shaping reality can shed some light on how this might happen. A rough diagram of how the forces concerned appear in Figure 3.11.

Figure 3.11 Forces producing social change according to Archer (1995)



In simple terms, Archer's Cultural systems are generally of an ideational nature, Structural systems are material/physical, while people as agents (Agency) are the third force influencing reality. These systems (cultural, structural, and agential) have the ability to influence each other. As Archer (1995: 14) argues:

> Properties and powers of some strata are anterior to those of others precisely because the latter emerge from the former over time, for emergence [Archer's term for social change] takes time since it derives from interaction and its consequences which necessarily occur in time.

It is therefore conceivable that teachers as human agents at the micro level can be influenced by concepts (cultural systems), such as those presented at conferences or in the form of academic papers (material influences), and alter their actions as agents accordingly. In this sense, concepts at the macro level, for example accepted pedagogies such as CLT or policies such as multilingualism, may influence micro-level agency more strongly than (less familiar) policies made at the meso level.

If there is a common theme that runs through all levels, however, it is a concern with preparation for employment. This seems to be well represented at all policy levels – Incidentally, Archer (1995) would refer to this as ‘morphostasis’, a situation in which social systems are working in harmony and not against each other.

As discussed in 1.6, Pinar (2012: 38) accepts that the modern curriculum serves economic purposes, but emphasises for education to achieve its full purpose, it must be set free of economic goals, since 'Intelligence is made narrow, and thus undermined, when it is reduced to answers to other people's questions, when it is only a means to achieve a preordained goal' (2012: 38). In 3.5.2 above, I found this too extreme a view, essentially arguing that pragmatic concerns are part and parcel of the UAS philosophy. For the purposes of this study, it appears from the discussion so far that the conceptualisation of the English language support programme will contain some sort of pragmatic elements, though these should not eclipse critical elements. While I find Pinar's stance a bit extreme, I regard his emphasis on innovative and original thinking as important. The subversion of critical thinking to 'company-friendly' curriculum content is, in my view, a risk. I use the word 'risk' advisedly: if the credit crisis of 2007-2009 did not dispel the myth that capitalism guarantees economic growth, the ongoing challenge of driving economic growth in a fashion that does not ruin the environment is a harsh reminder that challenges to the status quo are not only welcome, but necessary.

In 3.5.4, I pointed out that English-language support is not the only context in which critical thinking, or for that matter, academic literacy, can be developed. The TP is a trilingual degree; language support takes place in French and German as well as English. English-language support does therefore not bear the burden of developing a

critical element in the curriculum alone. A lack of proficiency in English does not mean a lack of critical ability in other languages. In other words, the critical faculty is not dependent on language proficiency, it just cannot be expressed in a sophisticated manner. To achieve more facility of expression, experience suggests that the TP English syllabus devotes a great deal of time to practical, CLT-influenced themes related to Business English, and traditional grammar and vocabulary issues. It should also be noted that the policy review did not uncover significant evidence of support for EAP at any policy level. As pointed out in 1.2, EAP is of central relevance to this study, as English students need language support to prepare them for academic studies in Business Administration, perhaps a kind of ESAP (Hyland, 2006: 8 – 12). I would argue that a CLT-influenced pedagogy, if it considers student needs, should also contain EAP elements. These points will be pursued in the following chapters.

4.0 Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The TP has existed since 2000, yet no attempt has been made to gain insights into the way in which lecturers conceptualise their subject and how the enacted curriculum reflects their understanding of policies at the macro and meso levels. As Punch (2009: 159) points out in his discussion of the potential sources of qualitative data, schools regularly generate large amounts of documentary data, most of which is overlooked by researchers. In general terms, this study's aim is to critically analyse the conceptualisation of English-language development in academic support courses, as expressed in documentary form at the departmental level, in order to understand the forces that shaped the syllabus. Alternatively expressed, the study wishes to investigate the enacted curriculum for English-language support in the TP with a view to understanding why it has taken on the form it has. Insights gained in this way may inform a future curriculum evaluation. Therefore, it follows that the documentary data gathered here should represent to a meaningful extent the practices of the local English department.

4.1.1 Choosing a data sample

For the purposes of this study, the semester programmes drawn up by teachers before the start of every term will constitute the primary data source. 'Semester

programme' is the local term for syllabus, and the two terms will be used interchangeably here. In most cases, these syllabi are one-page documents that represent the materials teachers intended to pursue on a week-by-week basis (see Appendix I). These documents are intended to give a basic overview of course contents and prescribed materials. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the syllabi seem to be both a convenient and significant primary source of data. In addition to the syllabi, the official module descriptions (or curricula) for English, which represent the teaching content of a sample semester, were considered. These were produced for accreditation purposes in 2012, as required by the Swiss Federal Department of Education (see Appendix II). These six descriptions do not reflect already-taught curricula but rather, represent examples of what course content might look like. All documents that will be used for data-collection purposes appear in Appendix I (Syllabi) or II (Curricula). The general terms 'curriculum documents' will be used to refer to syllabi as the week-by-week account of lesson content, and curricula as the general description of what is to be taught.

It has proved to be a challenge to obtain a relatively complete sample of the TP's English programme. In the first case, the documents are not stored in any one location, but are individually kept by the teachers who taught in the programme. The task of retrieving the documents is further complicated by the fact that that one colleague has retired, and two external teachers have recently been asked to step in for absent lecturers. A further complicating factor was that teachers do not always retain complete records of the documents (syllabi and curricula) pertaining to classes that have already graduated. In effect, this means that because it is the 2011 intake that is in its final semester at the time of writing (Spring 2013), records of 2010 (and earlier) intakes are likely to be patchy.

The data set constituted by the curriculum documents for the 2011 intake has been supplemented by documents from other intakes where possible. In this fashion, a pool of around 50 curriculum documents has been created. A content analysis of these hopefully enables the researcher to gain a reliable description of the English curriculum in the degree programme, in order to understand their conceptualisation and implementation at the UAS and its partner institutions. In short, the description,

when critically analysed, will hopefully act as a basis for modifying (or not modifying) future syllabi and curricula.

4.1.2 The goals of the study in detail

In the title of this study, the word 'reconceptualising' is used, and in order to reconceptualise, it follows that one should gain an impression of the original concept. Specifically, what choices have lecturers made in selecting topics, areas of knowledge and classroom activities to focus on? What influences and resources are evident from their teaching practices? To answer these questions, this study intends to perform a content analysis supplemented by a critical-realist approach.

A critical-realist approach will, I hope, enable a deeper view of the content analysis. A 'reading between the lines', empowered by the rigorous theoretical framework provided by critical realism (Archer, 1995; Bhaskar, 2008; Boughey and Niven, 2012) will yield insights that may in turn inform the reconceptualization of the English programme. Baldauf (2006: 150) argues that language planning has both overt and covert facets, and I intend to show that a critical-realist approach is useful for determining the influence of both overt and covert factors in the curriculum. Through practical application in case studies (Kahn, 2009; Horrocks, 2011; Boughey and Niven, 2012), it has recently been demonstrated that critical realism can have valuable 'real-world' applications.

It was originally a goal of this study to compare the TP's English programme with English courses in other trinational degree programmes. However, Chapter 3 (3.4) indicated that where language support is concerned, the other degree programmes located in the Upper Rhine Region – where the TP is situated – show marked differences in their focus, organisation and course content. More specifically, the TP is the only one of the twelve degree programmes to focus on business administration, and the only programme to have a significant number of content courses (one-third) taught in English. Where the content and organisation of English-language support is concerned, therefore, comparisons between the TP and the other trinational

programmes in the area would be unlikely to yield useful results due to the significant differences between them.

Therefore the semester programmes will be evaluated in their own right, and it is my contention that this evaluation will still be meaningful due to the methodological approach taken, that of a content analysis that will situate the semester programmes in a wider theoretical context. The form of content analysis chosen will be described in the following section. In brief, this study takes the view that content analysis is useful for identifying patterns in the semester programmes, but that critical realism will provide the tools to give these patterns a deeper significance, by illuminating the structures that produced them. Critical realism was briefly introduced in Chapter 1.

4.1.3 Qualitative research and the issue of trustworthiness

However, before we go into the question of identifying a suitable form of content analysis, a deeper issue affecting all varieties of qualitative content analysis should be addressed: that of trustworthiness. The difficulty of establishing trustworthiness in qualitative content analysis is a recurrent theme in the literature (e.g. Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Malterud, 2001; Graneheim and Lundman, 2004; Punch, 2009; Vaismoradi et al, 2013). Miles and Huberman (2002: 108) lament the lack of reliability of many such qualitative studies:

> … codes seem to appear almost magically in reports that have boiled down hundreds of pages of transcripts and field notes to half a dozen pages of meaningful findings, with little explanation of *how* this process was accomplished. [Original emphasis]

In this regard, Miles and Huberman (1994; 2002; Miles et al, 2013) recommend the use of graphic means (e.g. matrices or networks) to the internal workings of the content analysis as a useful method of achieving trustworthiness. In general, Miles et al (2013: 108) claim that 'you know what you display', a view which is endorsed by Graneheim and Lundman (2004) and Punch (2009). For the purposes of this study, a matrix can be described as a chart recording the conclusions a researcher has drawn at various stages of the encoding process, and Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) succinct method of developing codes through a matrix recommends itself. This does

not mean that the steps traditionally observed in content analysis (e.g. Kaid and Wadsworth, 1989; Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Elo and Kyngäs, 2008; Punch, 2009) will be disregarded here, but Graneheim and Lundman's approach goes further than these by offering a practical example of how the process of developing codes can be carried out in a matrix. While the graphical depiction of the development of codes does not guarantee trustworthiness in absolute terms, and indeed it seems difficult to perform qualitative analysis in an absolutely objective manner, the use of graphic methods is intended to make the procedures adopted in this study as transparent as possible.

Content analysis is basically an empirical procedure, where the empirically determinable data in this case is a collection of texts. Nevertheless, it must be conceded that an empirical approach is not without its weaknesses. A traditional problem with empiricism is that it concerns itself with what is directly observable and therefore may neglect what cannot be directly perceived. As mentioned above, this study will attempt to use analytical tools provided by critical realism to shed light on themes which may not be detected by the content analysis. As soon as this study chooses to go beyond what is directly observable, however, it opens itself to accusations that the codes it produces in the content analysis are arbitrary. I am aware of the risk in attempting to combine the interpretation required in a critical-realist approach with the empirical approach in a content analysis, but it is my hope that my approach draws on the strengths, rather than the weaknesses, of both approaches. The fact that a central notion of critical realism is that reality is stratified, and that its strata can influence each other, follows logically from the literature review in this study, where language policy at various societal levels (Baldauf, 2006) was investigated for commonalities.

4.2 Content Analysis

The data considered in this study is of a documentary nature, i.e. the curriculum documents. To analyse them, this study proposes to use content analysis, which is described by Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1278) as "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns". Content analysis

exists in various forms, and can support either qualitative or quantitative analysis (Babbie and Mouton, 2001, Hsieh and Shannon, 2005, Elo and Kingäs, 2007), though in this case the analysis will be of a qualitative nature. Elo and Kyngäs (2007:114) maintain that through content analysis, 'large volumes of textual data and different textual sources can be dealt with and used in corroborating evidence'.

4.2.3 Types of Content Analysis

This section will rely on Hsieh and Shannon's (2005:1277) argument that qualitative content analysis can be separated into three broad categories, namely *conventional*, *directed* and *summative*. Conventional content analysis derives its categories directly from the textual sources,and tries to avoid imposing preconceived categories on the data. Labels for codes used in the data analysis come directly from the textual sources. However, a weakness of this approach is that researchers may fail to recognise key patterns in the data, or impose their own views on it; the authors also describe conventional content analysis as being uncomfortably similar to other methods of qualitative analysis, such as grounded theory method (2005: 1281).

In directed content analysis, however, the researcher attempts to 'validate or extend conceptually a theoretical framework' (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005:1281); the data is analysed in the context of an existing conceptual framework. An advantage of this approach is that data can be supportive or non-supportive of existing conceptual categories, whereas the conventional approach is not able to comment on patterns or themes that are not present in the textual sources (2005: 1282). Since the directed approach approaches the data with an existing set of categories, the extent to which these appear in the data can additionally be quantified. Nevertheless, the supposed strength of directed content analysis is also its weakness: using this approach, the researcher encounters a text with a marked conceptual bias (2005: 1283) and may be induced to interpret the data in a way that 'fits' the existing concepts.

Thirdly, summative content analysis adopts the method of counting the number of times a word appears in the text and uses this word count to carry out a latent content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005:1283). In the hypothetical example provided (2005: 1284), researchers focused on the incidence of the words *die*, *death* and *dying*

in transcripts of conversations between healthcare professionals and patients to explore in what contexts euphemisms were used. While this approach can provide insights into the way words are actually used, through its focus on relative word frequencies it may miss the importance of wider trends in the data, and might overlook the different ways in which the same word is used (2005: 1285).

4.2.4 Selecting the most suitable type of Content Analysis

Of the three approaches discussed so far, the best alternative appears to be that of *directed* content analysis. The first reason for this is that with directed content analysis, an existing conceptual framework can be used, and in this regard the study can for example refer to themes uncovered by the language policy review. Secondly, the perceived weakness of direct content analysis, which in this case is the supposed researcher bias towards preconceived conceptual categories, is not, I would argue, a serious problem. When one considers that every researcher will bring his or her own set of experiences, views and prejudices to the analytical process, this issue appears unavoidable. Moreover, adopting a pre-conceived set of conceptual categories with some recognition in the appropriate literature goes at least to a degree towards openly stating this potential bias, and ensuring that they will not be wholly idiosyncratic or arbitrary.

Furthermore, the choice of which type of content analysis is to be used also depends on the nature of the data set to be analysed. The curricula to be analysed in this study are not comparable with, for instance, the transcripts of conversations between doctors and patients. Obviously, each has a different format and applies to a different audience, and is limited in scope. Moreover, my institution requires curricula to have a set number of features, and they must present information in a preordained sequence, conditions which clearly do not apply to conversations such as those between doctors and patients. This in my view discounts conventional content analysis as a suitable methodology: to use the conventional approach would be to accept that curricula can only be analysed in terms of the concepts they represent, and not in terms of those which may for whatever reason be lacking. However, I would argue that curricula by their nature represent choices of topics, materials, and pedagogical approaches, all

situated in a particular context of practices and beliefs. As Smyth and Shacklock (1998:251) point out,

> Teaching is never innocent – it always includes some things, while excluding or denying others; celebrates some perspectives and actions while discouraging and denying others .... What constitutes legitimate teaching, therefore, depends on who is doing the defining, and their perception of the valued social end or purpose to which the teaching is directed.

Therefore, directed content analysis seems to offer a range of concepts to analyse texts, even if these notions are preconceived, that are better than a conventional approach, which forces one to take curricula at face value. Additionally, summative content analysis should be discounted because it relies on word-frequency counts. It appears that such frequency counts cannot effectively be applied to documents which due to their predictable structure, and the use of standard phrases, may favour the appearance of some words over others. In addition, the curricula have arisen in the context of a particular policy framework which suggests categories for analysis. For example, the study may be able to identify curriculum content which reflects policy at the micro (institutional) level, or another of Baldauf's (2006) policy levels.

4.3 Application of Directed Content Analysis

Content analysis will be carried out in a series of steps (Kaid and Wadsworth, 1989; Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). These are, in slightly adapted form: (i) developing the research questions; (ii) selecting the sample for analysis; (iii) defining the categories to be applied; (iv) applying the coding process; (v) establishing trustworthiness; and (vi) analysing the results of the coding process.

In the context of this study, these steps can be interpreted as follows:

(i) Developing the research questions

As stated in Chapter 1, the main research question is: how are English language support courses conceptualised in the trinational Bachelor programmes, and which factors influenced this conceptualisation?

(ii) Selecting the sample for analysis

A sampling method equivalent to *typical case* sampling (Miles and Huberman, 1994) will be used. This method attempts to make use of homogeneity in the data, particularly the fact that the curricula are developed for student intakes within the same course of studies and with nearly identical educational goals. This is reflected by the fact that for one semester, local conditions require that three separate syllabi are developed for the respective student streams, nominally allocated the CEFR labels C2, C1 and B2.

The data sample is composed of documents used by the English department: syllabi, used to plan activities week by week for individual classes, and curricula, which state in more broad terms the focus of the particular semester and specify the learning outcomes. In effect, the two types of documentary data are seen as complementary in the local context and so it seems appropriate to include both types in the sample for analysis. The sample to be analysed will first be represented by syllabi and curricula developed for use from 2011 to 2014, in order to obtain as complete an overview as possible of the concept of English for one student intake. To this will be added a roughly equal number of syllabi and curricula from a random selection of other student intakes. The total sum of documents included in the data pool amounts to 42 syllabi and 15 curricula. All the syllabi and curricula used in the analysis appear in Appendices I and II respectively.

To simplify the categorisation of the data, all syllabi consulted for the analysis will be labelled according to the particular student intake and the particular semester of study in which they were used. For instance, a syllabus used for the 2012 intake in the fourth semester would be labelled 2012.4 in Appendix I. The data collection faces the challenge that the school administration does not generally keep a complete record of syllabi and curricula for students who have graduated. This means that roughly 75% of the syllabi consulted were used for intakes from 2010 onwards (since at the time of writing, the 2010 intake had not yet completed their studies).

Furthermore, to make the data representative, the study should consult a roughly equivalent number of B2, C1 and C2 English syllabi. For the 2011 intake, the proportions are exactly the same (six semesters of study at each level representing six

syllabi for the English stream). Where the other intakes are concerned, a minimum of six syllabi per CEFR intake will be consulted, since six syllabi would be in theory be used during six semesters, in other words making up the entire three-year programme of study in the trinational Bachelor programme.

(iii) Defining the categories to be applied

In a directed content analysis, the analysis is informed by pre-existing categories. In the first place, the analysis will return to topics and/or concerns that arose in the literature review in the review of the policy landscape, for example, the concern at international and national level with preparation for employment. Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) coding process was proposed. In Table 4.1, it is represented with possible content:

Table 4.1 Graneheim and Lundman's matrix with possible content

Meaning unit (MU)	Condense MU	Interpretation of MU	Sub-theme	Theme
Students need to study AWL [Academic Word List] in Weeks 3 and 4	AWL is included in curriculum	AWL is regarded as important for academic English development	Adding additional materials	Inadequacy of existing course materials for academic English

In my view, the strength of this coding matrix is that 'raw' data (meaning units) and their deeper implications (sub-themes and themes) can be visibly linked. Another advantage is that the matrix provides scope for the reasoning that informed the linkage to be recorded, e.g. Interpretation of MU.

I would argue that the internal logic of Graneheim's and Lundman's matrix becomes clearer when it is compared with Richards and Morse's (2007) view of coding. Richards and Morse (2007) conceive of three types of coding: descriptive coding (where codes reflect factual details of the data), topic coding (where all codes pertaining to a particular subject are grouped together) and analytic coding (where codes are categorised and related to themes of broader significance). Relating this to

Graneheim and Lundman's coding process, it is possible to establish the following correspondence (Table 4.2):

Table 4.2 Graneheim and Lundman's Matrix mapped onto Coding Categories developed by Richards and Morse (2007)

Descriptive Coding			Topic Coding	Analytic Coding
Meaning unit (MU)	Condense MU	Interpretation of MU	Sub-theme	Theme

Richards and Morse's (2007) coding types make it possible to see the purpose of Graneheim and Lundman's matrix to demonstrate the interpretive moment of the coding process; in other words, Topic Coding and Analytic Coding.

(iv) Applying the coding process

A content analysis is carried out by using the Graneheim and Lundman's matrix (Figure 4.3). One notes how it is possible to observe how raw data (*meaning units*) on the left are linked with the categories of sub-themes and themes on the right. In this matrix, units of meaning are summarised (condensed), then interpreted, then compared to similar units to create a theme. For the purposes of this study, the *meaning units* represent information taken directly (as is) from the curricula. Because directed content analysis is being carried out in this study, pre-determined topics, or sub-themes, are already available. These sub-themes therefore need to be linked with the Meaning Units which are taken directly from the syllabuses, and then the remaining fields in the matrix need to be filled in. The sequential process of the coding is indicated in the appropriate fields of Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Sequence of Steps Taken during the Coding Process

Descriptive Coding			Topic Coding	Analytic Coding
Meaning unit (MU)	Condense MU	Interpretation of MU	Sub-theme	Theme
2.	3.	4.	1. / 5.	6.

In other words, the topic coding is done first, followed by the descriptive coding. Then the topic coding is again checked against the descriptive coding, and finally the analytic coding is carried out.

In developing categories, Graneheim and Lundman (2004) refer to the issue of regarding latent (hidden) and manifest (face value) content, and argue that both aspects should be considered. Admittedly, it is difficult to fill in material for the sub-themes without detailed knowledge of local conditions. To achieve this, other case studies (Horrocks, 2011; Kahn, 2009) relied on detailed interviews with participants. This study will not rely on interviews, but rather my insider status; the curriculum documents in question were either developed by me or colleagues with whom I work closely, which provided me with the background knowledge required. In this analysis, it can be argued that interpretation of the data brought latent content to the fore, which was made possible by my contextual knowledge as an employee of the institution.

Two rounds of coding were done, since it may not be possible to encode all data accurately using only the first set of codes. In other words, new codes will be suggested for data which does not fit the first set of codes. This process is to be expected in directed content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005: 1281). The study will then analyse some of the results of the coding process in terms of critical realism. A critical approach is important, I would argue, because such an approach could be helpful in reading between the lines, to repeat the phrase used above, and to put the 'themes' in Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) matrix in their social context.

Table 4.4 Bhaskar's Domains and Their Properties

	Domain of Real	*Domain of Actual*	*Domain of Empirical*
Mechanisms	√		
Events	√	√	
Experiences	√	√	√

Although the representation of Bhaskar's ontology (concept of reality) in Figure 4.4 may be daunting at first glance, it can be explained in fairly simple terms. The domain of the *real* refers to the domain where hidden factors exert influence, whereas the

domain of the *actual* refers to reality, and the *empirical* to reality that is perceived. *Mechanisms* are hidden properties with causal powers, and it is an understanding of these *mechanisms,* I maintain, that will allow this study to read between the lines, and to add additional depth to the directed content analysis.

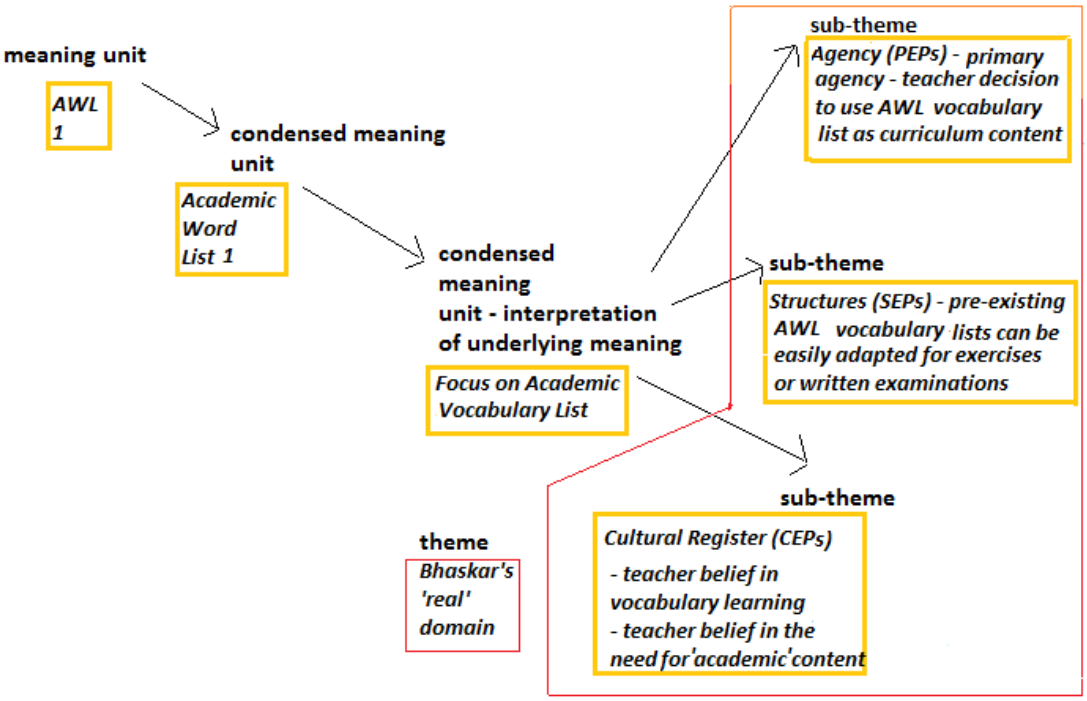
Bhaskar (2008) argues that reality is subject to a complex of influences, and that these influences operate at discrete domains, as suggested in Figure 4.5. This he refers to as the stratification of being:

> The model of the stratification of being always suggests that anything that happens at any one level, whatever level you are looking at, is going to be determined by things at that level, things at higher order levels and things at more basic levels. Our conversation is determined not just by the flow of our exchanges, but by the constraints of philosophical discourse, and the constraints of the physical structure of this building.

This represents a complex reality, where social elements influence and are influenced by each other. Influenced by this, Archer (1995) envisages a map of reality where reality is impacted by three influences, or what she terms 'emergent properties', the cultural (ideational), the structural (material) and the agential (individual). Crucially, it is these influences which operate behind the scenes, in Bhaskar's real domain, which cannot be perceived but exerts or has exerted power. The value of critical realism for this study is that it provides tools to conceptualise the power structures operating unseen, the importance of which was pointed out in Chapter 1 (Barton, 2006).

In Figure 4.5, Graneheim and Lundman's coding matrix is combined with Archer's (1995) emergent properties and Bhaskar's (2008) domains of reality.

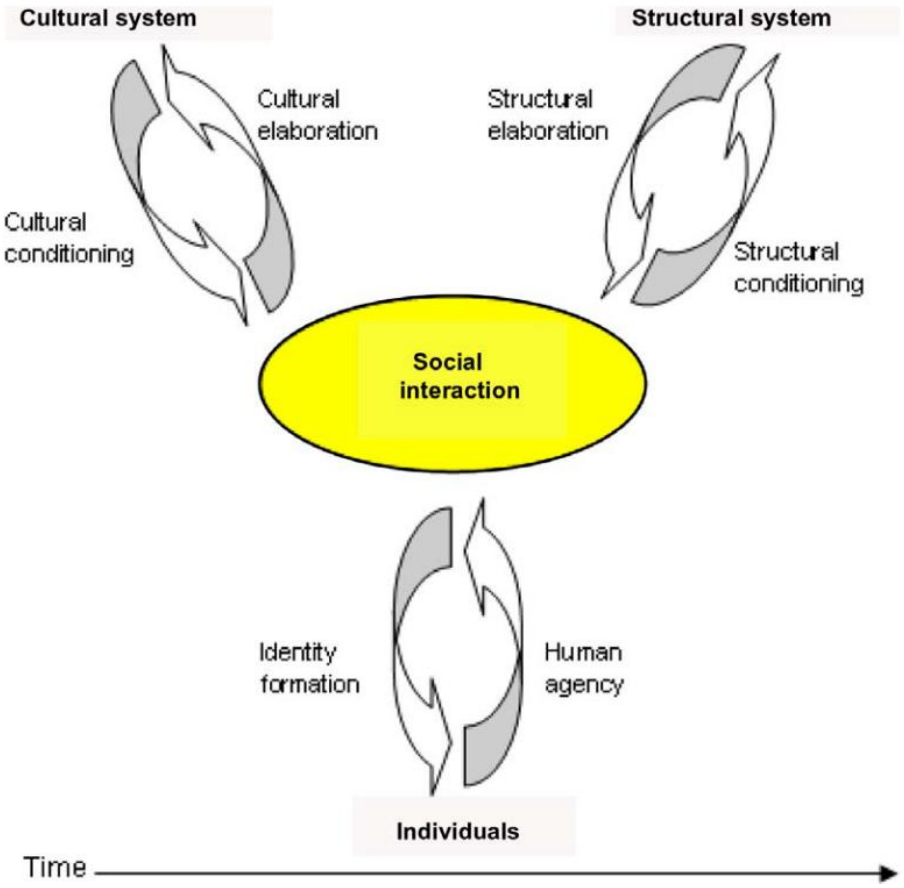
Figure 4.5 A hypothetical process of coding adapted from Graneheim and Lundman (2004), using concepts from critical realism.



Over time, cultural, structural and agential (human agency) influences act on each other in cycles, as suggested in Priestly's (2011: 229) figure illustrating this process in Figure 4.6, which appeared in Chapter 1 and is again represented here for the sake of convenience.

The point that we should not limit our view of reality to what we can perceive is underlined by Bhaskar (2008: 46). In simple terms, this is because the causes of real conditions that can be directly perceived are not always immediately apparent. In order to re-interpret the local English syllabus, I would suggest that it is important to arrive at an understanding of the conditions underlying the status quo, and in this sense Archer's (1995) three influences (or as she terms them, emergent properties) will hopefully be of use.

Figure 4.6 Priestly's (2011) representation of Archer's (1995) emerging properties



(v) Establishing trustworthiness

To establish trustworthiness, the study will attempt to make the criteria for establishing of categories and the production of codes as transparent as possible. Elo and Kyngäs (2008) point out that codes run the risk of becoming abstract and estranged from their original contexts. Graneheim and Lundman's (2004), I would argue, makes plain the link between codes and data. The exact process of coding has been described in section (iv) above: firstly, a Topic Code or *sub-theme* is selected; secondly, the data (curriculum or syllabus) is scanned for *meaning units* that could be linked with this code. In a third and fourth step, the raw data (meaning unit) is condensed to its key elements, which in a fifth step is again checked against the topic code to confirm the link between them. In the final step of Analytic Coding, the *theme* is developed from the sub-theme. In my view, the careful coding carried out in Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) matrix, as supported by Richards and Morse's concept of coding, makes for a reliable analysis.

However, what is clear to me in the coding process may not be clear to others. A precaution that will therefore be taken with the interpretation of a curriculum is a team review of the findings as a quality check. This step was taken because it is difficult to fill in material for the sub-themes without detailed knowledge of local conditions. To achieve this, other case studies (Horrocks, 2011; Kahn, 2009) relied on detailed interviews with participants. This study will not rely on interviews, but rather on my insider status, and the fact that the curricula in question were either drawn by me or colleagues with whom I work together closely will arguably provide me with the background knowledge required. After initial coding has taken place, four colleagues will be personally asked to review the interpretation of the curricula, on the condition that only teachers who have taught in the TP can participate in the review.

(vi) Analysing the results of the coding process

In the next chapter of this study, the coding exercise will be described, firstly with the proposed set of codes, and secondly with codes suggested by data not corresponding with the first set of codes. After that, in a second stage of analysis, the results of the content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2004) will be described from a critical-realist perspective (Bhaskar, 2008; Archer, 1995).

The second stage of analysis is necessary because a simple empirical analysis of the curriculum, while it may yield important insights, is in danger of remaining superficial. In order to reconceptualise the English programme if and where necessary, one should also understand the overt and covert mechanisms which shaped it, including what Barton (2006: 52) would term 'hidden power relations'. Archer (1995) has argued that if these can be detected, then they exist. A useful metaphor for dealing with results that may be produced by the content analysis is that they represent the tip of the iceberg: their appearance is the result of a combination of (mutually causative) factors which are hidden from the empirical perspective and therefore deserve in-depth investigation. The tip of the iceberg does not appear out of fresh air, and neither, I would argue, do the contents of the English curriculum.

4.4 Ethical Considerations

The first ethical consideration that might be discussed here is that I respect the promises made to colleagues that the study will not directly identify them, nor criticise their individual teaching styles. These promises should not be difficult to fulfil, as it is the content of the English programme as a whole that is the object of this study; it is not my intention to point out which individual produced a particular syllabus. Added to this is the necessary anonymity that must be preserved in respect of the participating institutions. It would be difficult enough to obtain permission in my own institution, since management tend to be nervous of self-critical studies; however, trinational relations are delicate at the best of times and so I was obliged to keep the participating institutions nameless. On the positive side, this has allowed me to be critical where it was merited.

Another ethical consideration in terms of this study is that it should not make misleading claims in respect of the English programme. In the first case, I wish to reduce this possibility by carrying out a member check of the findings of the directed content analysis. Moreoever, where the analysis benefits from insights offered by critical realism, a risk is posed by its complexity. Indeed, Archer's (1995) concept of social reality is complex and I am only referring to it in basic terms here. For the sake of thoroughness, however, it may be helpful to briefly situate Archer's concept of emergent properties (social, cultural or agential) in their philosophical context.

Elder-Vass (2010) has pointed out that the concept of emergent properties is a concept first introduced by Bhaskar and more fully developed by Archer (1995). For Bhaskar, an emergent property is the same thing as a causal power (Elder-Vass, 2010: 46-47). Bhaskar also attributes causal power to human agents (2008: 101 ff.). Archer (1995) basically agrees with this sense of the causal, saying that an emergent property is a social stratum defined by its power to exercise influence on other social strata (1995: 9). However, Archer (1995:247 ff.) describes emergent properties in a more precise way, and it is particularly her emphasis of agency, in addition to cultural and structural emergent properties, that is valuable for understanding the roles people play within institutions (Horrocks, 2011).

This study does not propose to offer a full introduction to Bhaskar's (2008) or Archer's (1995) ideas, an undertaking which would demand a separate study in its own right. However, one aspect of Archer's thought needs to be considered in more detail, that of structural emergent properties. For the purposes of this study, I interpret Archer's (1995) structural emergent properties (SEPs) in a limited sense as classroom materials. While Archer's understanding of SEPs includes material resources, it can also, somewhat confusingly, be extended to people. She (1995: 177) comments as follows:

> Therefore, *structural* emergent properties, irreducible to people and relatively enduring, as with all incidences of emergency, are specifically defined as those internal and necessary relationships which entail material resources, whether physical or human, and which generate causal powers proper to the relation itself. [original emphasis maintained]

Structural emergent properties in Archer's terms may or may not include people, but are always more than people. In my view, the unifying strand in Archer's concept of structure is that both structures of both material and human kinds have the function of setting boundaries within which cultural properties are situated and within which human agency is limited, when the structure predates the agency. This is confirmed and clarified when Archer (1995: 196-197) uses examples, such as in the following case, where she contrasts the role of cultural emergent properties (CEPs) and structural emergent properties (SEPs):

> To begin with, emergent structures represent objective limitations upon the situations and settings which agents can encounter. Thus what is 'logged' within the register of the cultural system defines the doctrines, theories, beliefs etc. in existence and thus circumscribes that which impinge upon agents as their ideational environment [CEPs]. Objectively, it delimits that which *can* be reproduced, re-formulated, rejected or transformed. There may be the most sophisticated conversations in so-called primitive societies, but they will not be about atomic physics. Similarly, material structures [SEPs] have to exist before agents can engage in practices which sustain or

> change them: industrial action is dependent upon factory production and wage labour. [original emphasis maintained]

If factories were material structures for Archer, the means of production, so to speak, that predate the industrial action of agents, then I argue that teaching materials are a key part of the material reality of the classroom to which teachers as agents can react. To extend the metaphor, teaching materials are an essential part of a teacher's means of production, while their physical availability and design play a part in shaping the curriculum. 'Industrial action', in this sense, might occur if the English department as a group decided to dispense with old materials and choose new ones – exercising their agential powers in this case.

It is difficult to do justice to the complexity of Archer's thought within a study that is not primarily concerned with philosophy, but in my view, the key issue here is whether a basic understanding of Archer's model allows for a rigorous analysis of school curricula, and I maintain that this is the case. This approach is an especially valuable one when one considers that the curricula themselves are short documents containing rather cryptic information, the deeper significance of which needs to be teased out.

5.0 Analysing English teaching in the local context: a closer look

5.0 Introduction

The literature review (second and third chapters) of this study focused on language policy at the international, national and institutional level and other possible influences on the TP English syllabus. The purpose of this section was to broadly identify key features of language policy at different levels which could have implications for English-language teaching. As such, they act as possible topics for use in the analysis which will be carried out in this chapter. In order to identify topics for use in the directed content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005), this chapter will therefore return to issues that arose in the policy review, such as the kind of employment that should be prepared for, and multilingualism, which official policy links with student mobility and hence with employability (see 3.5.2).

In general terms, it would be hasty to speculate to what extent the policy landscape has directly influenced the local English syllabus, but on the other hand the influence of the policy environment cannot be completely ignored. As Van der Walt (2013: 23) comments:

> Despite their 'autonomy' and 'academic freedom', HEIs, particularly universities, are not immune to government-imposed curricula and assessment strategies.

This underlies the motivation for taking themes arising from the policy landscape (Chapter 2 and 3) to develop codes for use in the content analysis. These themes will be used to contribute towards a preliminary list of topic codes in the analysis. I would argue that in addition to the perceived influence of policy, well-established pedagogical practices (e.g. CLT) may have an influence on the local English syllabus.

This preliminary list of codes will be used to study the curriculum documents and derive additional themes from them for the directed content analysis.

5.1 TP English language syllabi from the perspective of the policy landscape

This section will return to themes arising from the analysis of the policy landscape in Chapters 2 and 3. 'Policy' in this sense is understood to not only refer to macro- and meso-level policy, but also to micro-level practices of the institution and its teachers. This includes official and de facto language planning (Shohamy, 2007), the latter of which may not be in the public domain (Baldauf, 2006). Therefore, my insider status will be valuable in bringing internal institutional practices to light. In sections 5.1.1 - 5.1.4 below, the themes that emerge from the policy frameworks discussed in chapter 2 and 3 will be discussed. In 5.1.5 further themes are identified that either emerge from the curriculum documents or have strong links to themes already identified in the policy review. As mentioned above, these themes will be used to analyse local curriculum documents.

5.1.1 Policy Statements on Preparation for Employment

The literature review suggested that the requirement that students be prepared for employment is strongly expressed at both the international level (EU legislation, Bologna Declaration) and national level (Switzerland, France and Germany). It therefore appears that the local English curriculum has to reconcile the demands of the working world with the student's supposed need for improved academic English. In simple terms, the wish that students be prepared for employment begs the question of just what kind of employment is being referred to. Where preparation for employment is concerned, the pace of change in the outside world, particularly due to globalisation, and increased student mobility, are two factors complicating the undertaking of predicting workplace demands. In simple terms, it is nowadays difficult to accurately predict the development of a student's career. Kramsch (2014: 296) describes the situation in vivid terms:

> …there has never been a greater tension between what is taught in the classroom and what the students will need in the real world once they have

> left the classroom. In the last decades, that world has changed to such an extent that language teachers are no longer sure of what they are supposed to teach or what real world situations they are supposed to prepare their students for.

In this respect, the review of the policy landscape in Chapters 2 and 3 does not offer many guidelines. One is left with the feeling that the proverbial chair, in this case, only has two legs: if employability is a keystone of educational policy, then surely official policy documents could make at least general references to which fields (information technology or engineering, for the sake of argument) are likely to retain, or increase, their importance and therefore can be expected to offer graduates employment opportunities. In 2.2.2, the European Council's *Lisbon Strategy* was mentioned, which did refer to areas of key interest, e.g. telecommunication (EC, 2000), but this suggestion was not followed up in other policy documents. This seems insufficient when European policymakers could conceivably have consulted with economists or industry specialists to predict developments in the labour market.

5.1.2 Promotion of Mobility and Plurilingualism

European language policy views foreign language competencies as a function of mobility, which in turn is assumed to improve employability. However, the question arises as to just how language skills should be developed to foster mobility. As noted in Chapter 2, 2.2.1, students are on one hand encouraged to be mobile, but on the other hand, no mention is made of the language skills they may need to study in academic contexts abroad (Erling and Hilgendorf, 2006). It therefore appears that while European policy at the national level is concerned with stimulating employment, the implications of this for language policy have not been thoroughly thought out.

The European Commission (2010) makes a link between employability and mobility, since mobility apparently enables students to develop a helpful 'skills set' (2005). In turn, the Commission links mobility with language learning (2012). At a national level, the educational policy of all three countries was that education should lead to skilled employment, beyond which no further details are specified. Specifically, the literature review only reflects a strong policy concern with preparation for employment – it does not specify in which fields such employment might be sought, nor which form this

preparation should take. Where preparation for employment is concerned, furthermore, the pace of change in the outside world, particularly due to globalisation, and increased student mobility, are just two factors complicating the undertaking of predicting workplace demands for teachers. The pool of syllabi therefore needs to be analysed in terms of a potentially wide variety of possible work-related 'preparation'.

In international (macro) level policy, student mobility is consistently linked with preparation for employment, as is the acquisition of foreign-language skills (see Chapter 2, Section 2.2.2). The acquisition of foreign-language skills is alternatively referred to as 'mother tongue plus two' by the European Commission (see 2.2.2) or 'plurilingualism' (2.2.3). For the sake of convenience, the slightly clearer term of multilingualism will be used in the analysis. Although mobility and multilingualism are closely linked, I would argue that they should remain separate in the analysis: encouraging the learning of multiple languages is not quite the same as encouraging students to study abroad.

5.1.3 CLT and EAP

The review of language policy, as noted in 2.4, did not make very specific recommendations about foreign-language pedagogy apart from a very strong emphasis on the need to prepare students for employment. In 2.3.2, it was noted that CLT promotes the development of the four language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) in an integrated way that attempts to anticipate student needs in the real world (Richards, 2006: 11). My experience is that practice of the four skills, or a focus on a particular skill, is a common practice in TP English lessons. No language curriculum is developed in a vacuum, and the pedagogy that currently dominates English-language pedagogy (2.3.2) is equally influential in the local context. The question is not really whether CLT is influential in the curriculum documents, but rather how it is interpreted in the local context. A local interpretation (considering the tertiary context) might, for instance, include EAP. Surely a CLT-influenced pedagogy should include elements of EAP that would adequately equip Swiss, German and French students for their studies in English?

The policy review (2.4) discussed a perceived need to improve student competence in academic English, due to the fact that English is a language of instruction in the

trinational programme. However, it was discovered (2.4) that the policy landscape devoted very little attention to EAP, although EAP was identified at the outset (1.2) as a topic of central importance, and in particular the choice between EGAP and ESAP. If one is focusing on student needs, the choice between EGAP and ESAP seems to devolve to the task of choosing the variety which would be of most use to students in their studies. But, one might ask, what variety is of most use? Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002) address this in their discussion of EAP:

> …for college and university students in many countries, mastering enough English, and the right English, to succeed in learning their subjects through the medium of English in textbooks, lectures, study groups, and so on, is a matter of great urgency. Equally, for countries that are trying to lift themselves into economic prominence, or to remain major players on the world economic stage, producing an annual crop of graduates who can function in employment through English is a major issue.

A pressing issue in connection with EAP is therefore what is meant by the 'right English' referred to above. The 'right' English in this case could be defined as a choice between an EGAP or ESAP approach (Hyland, 2006). If one interprets EAP as a literacy practice, doubts arise as to whether EAP can remain entirely 'general'. Roth (1999) argues that 'acquisition of linguistic knowledge and acquisition of socio-cultural knowledge are interdependent because linguistic knowledge is embedded in and constitutes socio-cultural knowledge′ (1999:13). Business studies can certainly be regarded as a specific sort of social-cultural knowledge in this sense. Along the same lines, Lave and Wenger (1999:25) state that a ‘community of practice is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge, not least because it provides the interpretive support necessary for making sense of its heritage.’

In the local context, it seems that EAP which is devoid of references to business contexts would be less useful to students of business administration. To paraphrase Lave and Wenger (1999: 25), real knowledge cannot exist without a community of practice in which it is situated, and the challenge then becomes to create such a community of practice in the classroom, inasmuch as this is possible. To address student needs, therefore, the language teacher should in principle be aware of various

kinds of literacies existing in other 'content' subjects of the Bachelor's programme and prepare students for them. This makes considerable demands of the language teachers, i.e. that they should be literate in 'content' subject areas, which as Spack (1988) notes, they may not be able to meet. An ESAP approach has its limits if English teachers are not well-versed in the specific content they are supposed to deal with. It remains to be seen to what extent the English syllabus has included an EGAP/ESAP element in its syllabus.

5.1.4 Linkage of language learning and critical thinking

In 2.2.4 critical thinking, in addition to foreign language learning, was noted as being linked in a policy document (EUR-Lex, 2006b), as being part of a set of complementary competencies deemed essential to lifelong learning. In 3.5.4 I argued that a critical approach is a necessary supplement to a CLT-based pedagogy (Wallace, 2002). Beyond this, I argued that a pragmatic critical approach (Allison, 1996) was necessary to deal with the applied nature of study in a business studies degree.

In the context of critical thinking, it seems necessary to decide what role current understandings of academic literacy will play for the analysis. Lea (2004:740) argues that New Literacy studies have moved away from the idea that

> …literacy is not a unitary concept; reading and writing - literacies - are cultural and social practices, and vary depending on the particular context in which they occur.

This is a valid point, and I maintained in 3.5.4 that students needed to develop a kind of academic literacy that would enable them to navigate between campuses in three distinct cultural and linguistic settings. However, I also cautioned that academic literacy on its own, as part of a critique of academic practices (Lea and Street, 1998) is not sufficient to equip TP students for their studies. Although one of the goals of literacy studies is to give students a voice in the academic domain, literacy studies themselves have been accused of being prescriptive and dogmatic (Harwood and Hadley, 2004). Furthermore, Hyland (2006: 123) notes that the academic literacies model (Lea and Street, 1998) is based on research done on L1 students. I argued in

3.6 that the role of English-language support in the TP course of studies should not be misunderstood: English is the medium of instruction in only two semesters out of a total of six.

A further difficulty with academic literacy is that it touches on many themes already identified in the study. The language and intercultural skills needed for study in three countries are closely linked with multilingualism. Furthermore, a pedagogy including ESAP would focus to some degree on specific cultural and social practices emphasised by academic literacy. I have linked the necessity of developing critical tools to deal with the applied, business-related nature of the TP with critical pragmatism. Apart from these considerations, I hope to respect the critical perspective that new literacy studies in general require (e.g. Lea and Street, 1998; Street, 2003; Lea, 2004; Street and Lefstein, 2007) by using the tools of critical realism (Bhaskar, 1975, 2008); in particular, those of social realism (Archer, 1995). For these reasons, since academic literacy touches on so many themes of interest for the analysis, it is worthy of discussion here, but will not be used as a theme for analysis itself.

5.1.5 The CEFR, External Language Examinations, and Teaching Materials

I would maintain that the needs-related focus of CLT is manifested in the form of external examinations in the English-support curriculum, since it is both customary in the local context (see Chapter 3) to prepare students for external language examinations, and also because such examinations tend to be popular with students who wish for an external confirmation of their language skills. Both school management and students seem to be of the general opinion that students who can present language certificates, for instance those issued by Cambridge ESOL, have an advantage over others in their post-graduation search for employment. The examinations are to a certain extent an accepted part of institutional culture, since they are perceived (by students and staff alike) to be a standardized measuring stick and the practical definition of what is required at particular CEFR levels. In Archer's terms, this might be sequentially displayed as follows in Table 5.1:

Table 5.1 Proposed process whereby reaction to the CEFR brings about developments in the English syllabus

(Ideational/cultural property)	CEFR →
(Human Agency)	alignment of language examination with CEFR →
(Structural/material property)	existence of CEFR-aligned language examinations →
(Human Agency)	Creation of textbooks preparing students for CEFR-aligned examinations →
(Structural/Material)	Existence of CEFR-aligned preparation materials →
(Human Agency)	Use of preparation materials (textbooks, practice examinations) supposedly containing CEFR-aligned content

The above scenario naturally brings to mind a 'chicken-or-the-egg' scenario, where it is not clear which precedes which: if one starts the sequence with the CEFR, then surely it was human agency that created it? Such speculation is ultimately irrelevant: what matters is the result that a chain of events has wrought in the present. Archer (1995:14) acknowledges this:

> Such autonomous properties [human agency / ideational properties / material properties] exert independent causal influences in their own right and it is the identification of these causal powers at work which validates their existence, for they may indeed be non-observables.

It may therefore not be possible to empirically validate the chain of cause and effect in Table 5.1; the point is that without the CEFR, there would be no CEFR-aligned examinations or textbooks. In the analysis, I will use 'commercial textbooks' as a code to indicate the local use of such commercially available teaching materials.

Since the English streaming is, at least nominally, linked to the CEFR, the external examinations have a significant benchmark function. My experience suggests, however, that individual teachers interpret this perceived need in different ways.

While some do little else than prepare their students for a particular examination, others will combine elements of different examinations in their own teaching and evaluation, while others may side-step this 'need' altogether in the final semester. The analysis in this chapter should therefore address the question of whether, and to what extent, a concern with preparation for external examinations is represented in the TP English syllabus.

As stated above, it is customary to prepare students for a supposedly CEFR-aligned external examination in the final (6th) semester of the TP. What one might describe as a 'knock-on effect' of this micro-level policy is that examination preparation materials produced by commercial providers are sometimes used in English lessons. Byrnes (2007) has questioned the claims made by publishers that their textbooks are reliably aligned with the CEFR. As seen in Chapter 2, the theoretical justification for the inclusion in the syllabus of both the CEFR and external language examinations is tenuous, but this does not mean that their influence on local teaching practice is weaker as a result. Commercially available textbooks used for (external) examination preparation, or simply as classwork books offer an all-too-easy resource to the language teacher, because they can be used as the basis for a ready-made English course, offering coverage of business topics complete with integrated listening and reading texts, as well as writing, vocabulary and grammar exercises. However, when one 'follows' such course books, one is actually giving preferential treatment to the topics and methods chosen by the author. The question then arises as to which interests and choices are taken by that author. Since this is, in my view, a significant question, the question of the use of commercial teaching materials is one that will be pursued in the analysis.

5.1.6 Identifying further themes to use in the analysis

So far, this chapter has discussed various features of the policy landscape and will propose codes relating to these features in 5.2 below. However, before we proceed with the coding it seems necessary to reflect on the fact that these themes do not exist in a vacuum, but in relation to each other. The truth of this assertion can be confirmed by referring to the preceding section, where a concern with business-related topics, and/or CEFR-aligned language tests, can influence the materials used in an English

class. This raises a difficulty for the analysis: if, for example, the main activity in a particular semester is reading, and the format of the reading tasks is inspired by an external (commercial) language examination, how should one represent this activity in the analysis, and which codes should be used in the directed content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005)? One could argue that (at least) three influences are operating simultaneously: the commercial examination format directly and the CEFR and CLT each indirectly, since the commercial examination aligns itself with the CEFR, and tests the four skills (CLT).

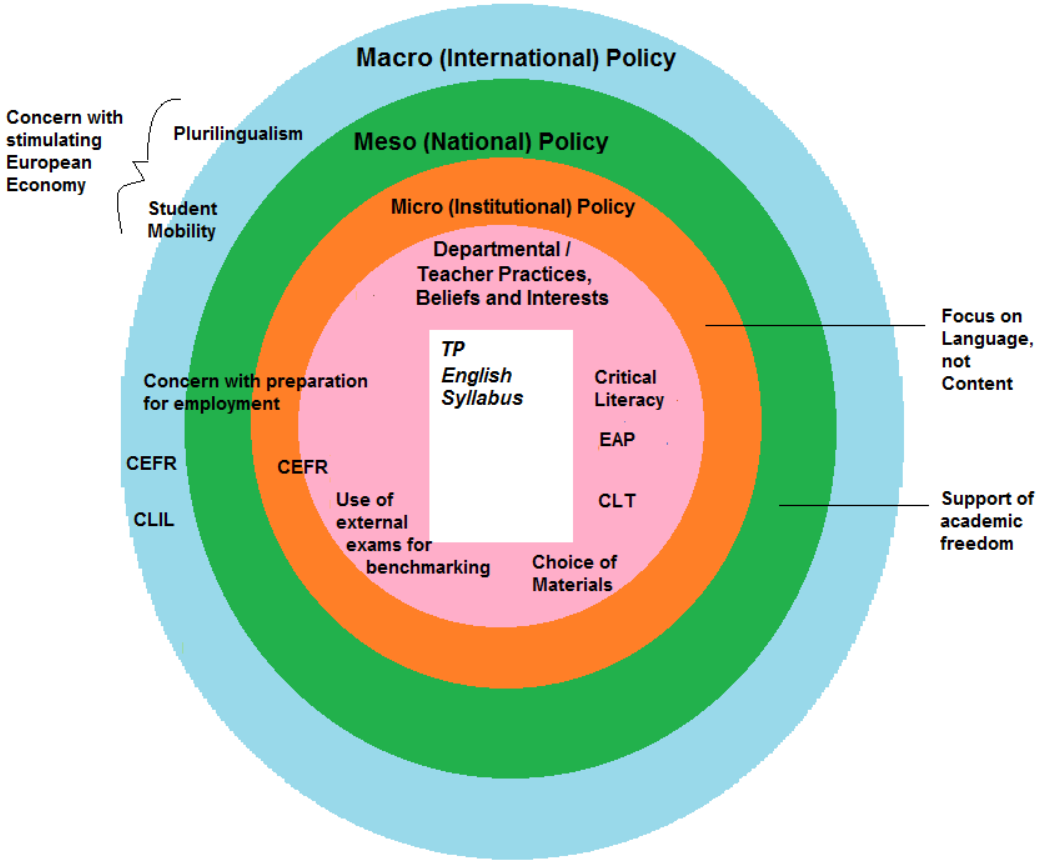
The notion that reality is simultaneously affected by a complex of influences would be supported by a critical-realist approach (Bhaskar, 2008; Archer, 1995). Using Archer's terms, one might argue that cultural factors (ideational properties) e.g. the CEFR, can lead to social change in a material sense (structural properties), i.e. the publication of language examinations and course materials aligned with the CEFR. Bearing in mind that elements of a syllabus (such as topic and materials) can be closely related to each other, the act of assigning a code to a certain element of a syllabus must be accompanied by an awareness that syllabus elements are interrelated.

In order to anticipate this complexity to some extent, the analysis will use a refined approach offered by Graneheim and Lundman's matrix (2004) which allows directly observable, surface-level data to be linked with deeper themes. In this way, perhaps, some idea of the linkage between them can be given. In the meantime, Figure 5.1 is a simplified graphical attempt to reflect the interplay of some of the factors discussed so far in this chapter and referred to in Chapters 2 and 3.

A final consideration in respect of the generation of codes is that since language policy can be de facto (Shohamy, 2007) and covert (Baldauf, 2006), I have a privileged insight into local practices which recommend themselves as possible codes. In this section I have, on the basis of de facto experience, identified several themes I intend to pursue in the analysis. The codes ultimately chosen appear in Table 5.3 (section 5.2.1) below, along with an explanation of their inclusion in the analysis. In my experience, it is not difficult to find books that deal with grammar, EAP, or business English separately, but it is difficult to find materials that combine all three in a way

that corresponds to the assumed needs of TP English students at an appropriate CEFR level.

Figure 5.2 Potential networks of influences in respect of the TP English syllabus



While external examinations offer ideas for classwork, such exercises are conceived for a different (commercial language testing scenario). Another example of de facto policy referred to in Chapter 3 is the practice in the TP of separating language modules from content modules, where the language modules in theory are required to have language as their primary focus. I have also proposed that the theme of EAP will be relevant in the analysis, since it is suggested by CLT but not directly suggested by macro and meso policy. Because my inside knowledge of the programme is one of the factors enabling the analysis in the first place, this knowledge in the form of codes will also be used in the content analysis.

5.2 Framework for directed content analysis

5.2.1 Operationalising the research questions

No qualitative analysis can be conducted with a completely open mind, and in previous sections I have attempted to acknowledge my insider status, with both the advantages and prejudices that my status implies. One example of prejudice is my decision to omit CLIL (macro-level policy) from the analysis, due to the more powerful institutional policy requiring teachers to focus on language above content. However, I would argue that the preliminary list of codes can be defended from charges of complete subjectivity by the fact that it was informed by the literature review, as described above. In addition, some codes will be proposed on the basis on my knowledge of de facto conditions and the preceding discussion. At this stage, the group of codes may not be complete since analysis of the data sample may suggest further codes. The preliminary codes are presented in Table 5.3 with cross-references to their original sources:

Table 5.3

Proposed codes	**Original context**
1. preparing students for employment	Referred to at macro (2.2.4), meso (2.4) and micro levels (3.2, 3.3)
2. promotion of plurilingualism	Endorsement at macro (2.2.4.1), meso (2.4.1) and micro levels (3.2, 3,3, 3,5)
3. supporting increased student mobility	Endorsement at macro level (2.2.1, 2.2.4.4), micro requirement of student mobility (3.2, 3.5.2)
4. a focus on some or all of the four skills	Influence of CLT, as discussed in 2.3.3, 3.5.3 / Influence of conceptualisation of language skills in CEFR (2.2.4.2)
5. preparing students for academic study in English (EAP)	De facto requirements of study programme at micro level / influence of CLT (2.3.3, 3.5.3
6. focus on learning of grammar and	Included in discussion of CLT (2.3.2)

vocabulary (language-oriented lessons)	
7. referring to external examinations as benchmarks	As discussed in 2.1, 2.3.2, 5.1.5, 5.1.6
8. development of academic (critical) literacy	As discussed in 2.2.4.2, 2.2.4.3, 3.5.4 and 5.1.4.
9. use of commercial materials e.g. examination preparation textbooks	Discussed in 5.1.5

In order to make them more easily detectable during analysis, the codes were written in a way that indicated the presence of a factor, rather than its absence. Therefore, a code that started with the words, 'Lack of an appropriate theoretical foundation for teaching practice' was removed, since it is more difficult to detect when something is lacking than when it is present.

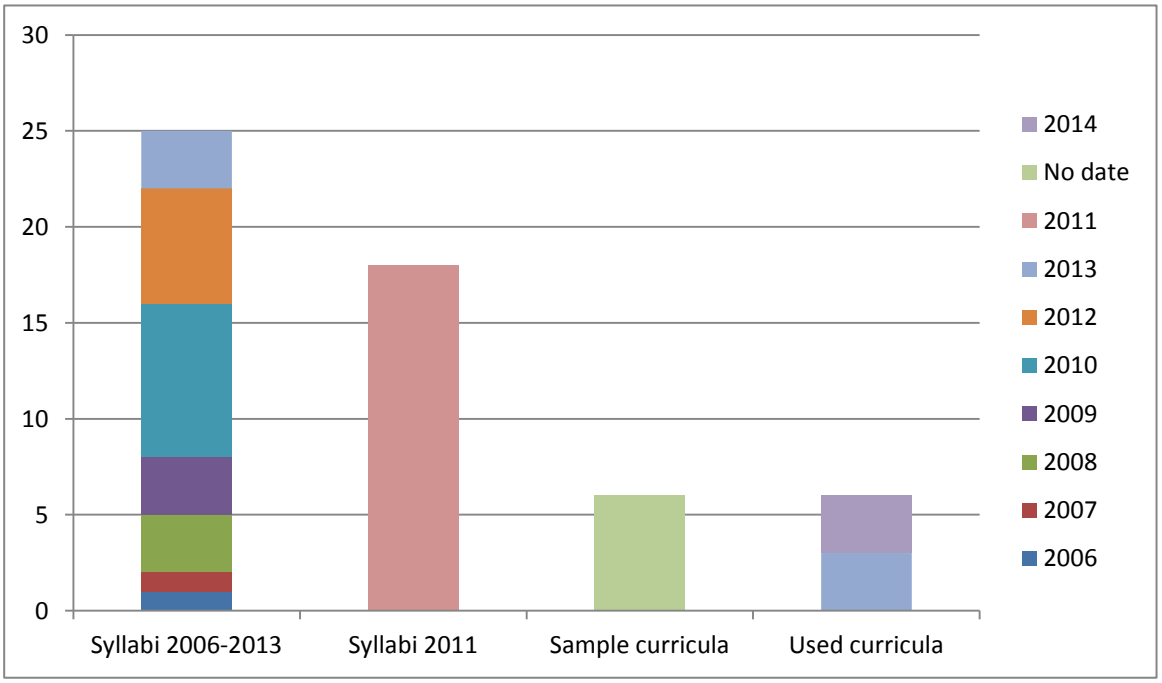
5.2.2 Selecting the sample for analysis

The sample has been compiled from three sources. Firstly, I gathered all the semester programmes (syllabi) offered to students who commenced their studies in 2011 (and who therefore take their final English class in 2014). This represents in total eighteen (six semesters at three levels) different syllabi. Secondly, another eighteen syllabi were selected from student intakes between 2008 and 2013. These syllabi were purposively sampled to the number of those in the 2011 intake: six selected at (CEFR) B2 level, and six at C1 and C2 levels respectively. Thirdly, six sample module descriptions (curricula), produced for accreditation purposes as described in Chapter 4, were added to the sample. These will be complemented by nine 'real' module descriptions actually used in past semesters, making a total of 51 documents that represent units of analysis (Graneheim and Lundman, 2004). The difference between the sample curricula is that they were developed by the English department to serve as a general guide for designing syllabi over six semesters, whereas the 'real' module descriptions/curricula (the terms are synonymous in the local context) are those actually produced and used by individual English teachers.

As stated in Chapter 4, the data set is respectively composed of 42 syllabi and 15 module descriptions (curricula). In this sense, 'syllabus' is taken to mean the study

programme of an individual class from week to week, while 'curricula' denotes what is locally known as a module description, in other words a broad course outline. As discussed in Chapter 4, all syllabi in respect of the 2011 student intake are included, (17 in all, since in one case two classes were taught using the same syllabus) so that a complete picture of the English programme taught to one cohort of students is included. Apart from this, the syllabi were selected so that CEFR levels B2, C1 and C2 received roughly equal representation from the documents available (see 4.1.1), meaning that at least six syllabi were consulted at each level, with six syllabi being the equivalent of six semesters of study, i.e. a complete English course for the entire degree programme. Overall, the number of documents in the data pool, when allotted to a particular student intake, can be represented in the following proportions (see Figure 5.4):

Figure 5.4 Source of documents used for analysis per student intake



As can be seen from Figure 5.2, apart from the syllabi for the 2011 intake, the syllabi for intakes 2010 and 2012 were the most represented in the data sample. This effectively means that the majority of the syllabi were used between 2010 and 2014, making the data sample up-to-date at the time of writing.

It is noticeable from Figure 5.1 that the number of curricula available is much lower than the number of available syllabi. This is due to idiosyncratic local conditions, where semester-specific curricula are only required at the Swiss campus, but not at the French or German partner universities, where more general curricula apply. These general (sample) curricula, which the English department developed in 2013, were consulted and included in the data pool.

To provide the reader with a concrete example of a syllabus, Figure 5.5 is a representation of a syllabus at level C1, and Figure 5.6 is a representation of a curriculum/module description as it would be locally defined. These are both documents produced for use at the Basel campus (one of the three campuses co-operating to offer the TP degree). Except for semesters taking place at the Basel campus (3 and 6), TP English teachers are not required to submit syllabi or curricula to the administration, meaning that syllabi produced for the other two campuses may look different, and curricula may not be produced at all, because TP English teachers generally regard the syllabus as sufficiently detailed. In general, though, all TP English syllabi contain a week-by-week account of the main topics to be covered in class, the dates of lectures, the name of the teacher and the room in which the class will be held. In addition, it includes details of mandatory materials and due dates for assignment and examination dates.

A significant role is played in syllabi by the choice of materials. In respect of learning resources, there are generally three types of syllabus in the data pool: those which firstly rely on self-produced materials, e.g. handouts; secondly, those represented by the sort of syllabus represented in Figure 5.5 below, which refer to external/commercial materials but do not limit themselves to the topics or themes presented in those materials; and thirdly, those which base their structure and choice of topics entirely on external input, for instance the chapters in course books.

Figure 5.5 An example of a TP English Syllabus at Level C1

Syllabus: Business English III C1

Module: Languages III

Course Focus: Debating and Critical Analysis (Summaries)

Semester	3	**Lecturer**	
Time	Friday, 9.00- 12.15	**Room**	
Class	2013, C1		

Date	Lesson	Content
03.10.2014	1	• Introduction to course; structure of the debate • Formal vocabulary: language of comparisons BGB 37,38; reporting verbs BGB 27 • Thinking critically • Identify topics for mini-debate and main debate AWL 6
17.10.2014	2	• Expressing degree BGB 39, Expressions of time BGB 40 AWL 7
24.10.2014	3	• Linking words BGB 41, 42 Pronunciation Hand in texts related to mini-debate Revise AWL 6 and 7
31.10.2014	4	• Developing an argument BGB 43, 44 • AWL 8
7.11.2014	5	• Mini-debates
14.11.2014	6	• Mini-debates
21.11.2014	7	• Developing an argument BGB 45 AWL 9 and 10
28.11.2014	8	• Debate Preparation • Discuss mini-debate writing Revise AWL 8 - 10
12.12.2014	9	• Main Debate (50%)
9.01.2014	10	• Written Examination (Vocabulary and Grammar, 50%)

Mandatory reading	Business Grammar Builder, 2nd edition, Emmerson, P. Handouts will be provided in class where necessary
Additional reading	Research for the debate will involve some additional reading on the topic chosen by the students. Students should do self-study in BGB according to their needs.

Figure 5.6 An example of a TP English curriculum

COURSE SUBJECT	**Business English II C1**	
Descriptor		
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration	
Course of Study	Bachelor	
Short Title		
Module Code	Languages II	
Type	Core Related Minor	
Lecturer		
Phone and E-Mail		
Level	Level Common European Framework C1	
ECTS-Credits	3	
Semester	3	
Pre-requisites	Business English II	
Restrictions		
Contact hours	30	
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)	
Exclusions		
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork, groupwork, class discussion, individual research, peer and teacher feedback	
Language of Tuition	English	
Learning Objectives	At the end of the 3rd semester students will be able to ▪ critically analyse texts ▪ defend or attack a statement orally and in writing ▪ use typical phrases needed in discussions e.g. meetings ▪ write effective summaries	
	Themes covered : ▪ Language and techniques of argumentation ▪ Debate format and summary techniques ▪ Correct referencing and revision of structuring language, e.g. linking words	
Assessment	Oral examinations (debates), Written examination (Vocabulary and Grammar), written summaries	
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English IV	
Indicative Learning Resources	**mandatory**	Handouts distributed in class
	additional reading	Research conducted by students

The third type of syllabus in my experience tends to focus on language learning as related to examination preparation or business English. In my experience, TP English teachers use one of these three types of syllabus on the basis of individual teacher preference. In fact, relying on a textbook to provide all or most syllabus content can reduce the teacher's workload when it comes to preparing lessons: there is less need for photocopying, or for developing themes or exercises, if these are all included in a book already assigned to students. The deeper implications of such reliance on commercial textbooks will be discussed in 5.3.

The syllabus in Figure 5.5 reflects the local practice of teaching 40 lessons of 45 minutes in length, adding up to 30 hours contact time (and, as can be seen from the curriculum Figure 5.6, this is accompanied by 60 hours of self-study). It can be seen that where Figures 5.5 and 5.6 are concerned, some information is included in the curriculum rather than the syllabus, in particular the goals of the course and the 'teaching strategies'. In the 'teaching strategy' field, the curriculum mentions specific pedagogical tools which the teacher is entitled to use, although in practice he or she may not employ all of them. Such information is a valuable aid to interpreting the syllabus, and justifies the inclusion of the (available) curricula. It is unfortunate that relatively few curricula are available, though the inclusion of the sample curricula from 2013 to some extent alleviates this. To deal with this difficulty, I asked teachers to give me background about their syllabi where needed, for example, where the syllabus concerned was not entirely clear because it utilized context-specific language which tended at times to be slightly cryptic.

5.2.3 Defining the codes to be applied

Nine predetermined codes were proposed in 5.2.1. In a directed content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005), it is assumed that predetermined topics can explain observable data. However, data which does not fit these codes is set aside and new codes are developed to account for them (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005: 1281). For the sake of convenience, the pre-determined codes are repeated here in simplified form for greater clarity:

1. Preparing students for the 'real world'/employment
2. Promotion of plurilingualism
3. Supporting increased student mobility
4. Focus on some or all of the four skills
5. Preparing students for academic study in English (EAP)
6. Focus on learning of grammar and vocabulary (GV)
7. Reference to external examinations as benchmarks
8. Development of Critical Literacy
9. Use of commercial materials e.g. course books

The reader will note that the CEFR does not appear in the above list, despite being mentioned in Chapter 3 (3.5.3), where the CEFR (and its linkage with CLT) was discussed as a theme arising from the policy review. However, the CEFR did not appear as a proposed code in Table 5.3 above because it proved problematic as a code. One reason is that due to the streaming of classes, there are automatic references to the CEFR in curriculum documents. The CEFR therefore appears at surface level, but due to its link with CLT also appeared at a deeper level of the analysis, meaning that no deeper insight was gained. The CEFR code therefore produced unsatisfactory results and was omitted from the analysis.

In Chapter 4, Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) matrix, which is represented in Table 5.4, was proposed. In Figure 5.7, it is represented with possible content:

Figure 5.7 Possible content inserted into Graneheim and Lundman's matrix, aligned with Richards and Morse's category codes

Descriptive Coding			**Topic Coding**	**Analytic Coding**
Meaning unit (MU)	**Condense MU**	**Interpretation of MU**	**Sub-theme**	**Theme**
Students need to study AWL in Weeks 3 and 4	AWL is included in curriculum	Introduction of EAP into the syllabus	Preparing students for academic study in English (EAP)	Teacher's belief in importance of EAP

Note that the sub-theme was taken from the list of nine codes proposed above. In other words, these nine codes were treated as sub-themes, and in the theme field, a deeper interpretation was attempted. Although I could also conceivably have treated

the list of nine proposed codes as themes, this would firstly have prevented a further level of analysis, because in Graneheim and Lundman's matrix the theme presents the deepest level of interpretation, equivalent to Analytic Coding (Richards and Morse, 2007). Therefore, the nine codes proposed above are treated as sub-themes, to allow a deeper level of analysis – the 'Theme' (Graneheim and Lundman) or the 'Analytic Coding' (Richards and Morse).

As stated in Chapter 4 (4.3), the strength of this coding matrix is that 'raw' data (meaning units) and their deeper implications (sub-themes and themes) can be linked, starting at the superficial level and developing the analysis and interpretation to a deeper level. Another advantage is that the matrix provides scope for the reasoning that informed the linkage to be recorded, e.g. Interpretation of MU.

5.2.4 Applying the coding process

For each of the 51 documents in the data sample, a maximum of one code will be assigned per pre-determined category. This will be done because it is more important to first determine what concepts are present in the English syllabus in an absolute sense, rather than the number of times these concepts are detected within the same document. What matters is that a code is present in a curriculum; a code that is mentioned once is not necessarily less significant than a code mentioned three times. This means that a code can be assigned a maximum of 51 times (because there are 51 documents). In a second step, curriculum content that could not be adequately described in terms of the pre-determined codes was newly encoded. Here again, a code (old or new) could only be assigned a maximum of 51 times. In this way, it is hoped that syllabus decisions taken by teachers in the three English streams can be revealed and compared. For the sake of discretion, for instance, in case I choose to criticise a particular syllabus, TP English teachers will be identified by random alphabetical letters in the analysis. This may be perceived as overly cautious but my colleagues have given me a great deal of support in the data collection and I am obliged to ensure that teacher anonymity would be respected.

In order to ensure accurate coding in the content analysis as far as possible, the following procedures were followed when assigning the aforementioned codes.

5.2.4.1 Preparation for employment

Codes are allocated to meaning units that refer to training of generic business skills, e.g. presenting, texts drawn from a specific work-related context, or any other material which is intended to prepare students for employment.

5.2.4.2 Promotion of plurilingualism

Meaning units encoded here are those which specifically make use of student knowledge of languages other than English, for example in translation exercises, inter-cultural discussions, or exercises focusing on so-called false friends, i.e. words in other languages which closely resemble English words but have different meanings or cognates.

5.2.4.3 Promotion of student mobility

Any references in the syllabus to study at foreign universities, university rankings or class activity that encouraged students to share their experiences of semesters spent at foreign universities under the auspices of the Erasmus programme, to name a few conceivable examples, are encoded here. It is assumed that such syllabus content might encourage students to spend a semester abroad (at universities other than the ones already included in the programme).

5.2.4.4 Focus on some or all language skills

This code was used if there was no reference to a specific, relevant context for the development or practice of the skill. In such cases, a typical description of the activity in the curriculum would be 'reading' or 'speaking'. This categorisation only applied when no further information is provided about the class activity other than generic terms such as 'reading', 'speaking', 'listening' and so on. If it was specified, for example, that the reading or speaking is in the context of external examination formats, this was encoded differently, and did not receive the 'skills' encoding.

5.2.4.5 Preparation for academic study in English (EAP)

Codes allocated here typically referred to meaning units that included the phrases 'compiling a bibliography', 'writing academic papers', and so on. All of the meaning units encoded here appeared to be included in the syllabus to help students deal with academic English.

5.2.4.6 Focus on grammar and vocabulary learning (GV)

Meaning units encoded under this heading refer to de-contextualised grammar and vocabulary material which is accorded status as a learning goal in its own right.

5.2.4.7 Reference to external examinations as benchmarks

In this case, meaning units are encoded that refer to external (normally commercial) English-language examinations, either as a learning or testing resource, where it seems clear that the format of the external examination, or its content, has influenced pedagogical practice.

5.2.4.8 Development of critical literacy

Any meaning units that refer to activities such as 'critical thinking', 'critical analysis' or 'defending or attacking a point of view' were included under this heading. While it is difficult to arrive at a precise definition of what critical thinking actually is (Bailin and Siegel, 2002) beyond a generalised type of reflective thinking, for the present any activity in which students were encouraged to challenge perceived wisdom or hidden ideologies, for instance, teasing out the assumptions implied in an author's arguments, was encoded in this category.

5.2.4.9 Use of non-specialized materials

Meaning units encoded here are either commercially produced textbooks with a business focus, grammar books, or vocabulary lists which were too general in nature or had a focus that was not entirely appropriate to business studies in English at the tertiary level, e.g. the AWL (Coxhead, 2000). The AWL is a general vocabulary list drawn from a pool of texts gathered in a variety of disciplines, and is therefore not specific to business studies.

5.2.5 Establishing trustworthiness

Trustworthiness was established in three steps. First, the coding procedure was made as transparent as possible by linking the descriptive, topic and analytic coding (Richards and Morse, 2007) in Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) matrix. This corresponds with Miles et al's (2003) maxim that 'you know what you display'. I would argue that the detailed way in which the matrix connects meaning units with sub-themes and themes recommends itself (see table 5.8), and goes some way to promoting researcher reflexivity (Creswell and Miller, 2000).

Table 5.8 Combining Richards and Morse's (2007) coding categories with Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) matrix

Descriptive Coding			Topic Coding	Analytic Coding
Meaning unit (MU)	Condense MU / *(if necessary)*	Interpretation of MU	Sub-theme	Theme

Secondly, in respect of Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) matrix, the correlation between the *interpretation of meaning units* and *themes,* as established by the researcher, was member-checked by current and past members of the English department. Thirdly, the staff members were themselves asked to assign codes to several curricula, and the results compared with the researcher's original coding. According to Bryman (2004:634), member-checking is a procedure in which a researcher 'submits materials relevant to an investigation for checking by the people who were the source of those materials' and so the second and third steps in this case represent a member check, since the curricula were produced by those who checked my coding and conclusions.

It must be conceded that the original context of Graneheim and Lundman's (2004) study was somewhat different to this study. In the original context, healthcare, the observations of caregivers were written down and these were then condensed. In the

case of semester programmes, however, the information contained may already be truncated, or shortened to save space, and so further condensing may prove unnecessary (see the 'if necessary' in Table 5.6). In that case, the interpretation required by Graneheim and Lundman's matrix is in my opinion all the more valuable, to give meaning to the occasionally unclear entries in the semester programmes. Furthermore, Richards and Morse's (2007) distinction between descriptive, topic and analytic coding supports interpretation and helps the researcher to go beyond description.

The specific procedure for the member-checking sessions is as follows: after being given a chance to acquaint themselves with the goals of the research and the coding process, English teachers were asked (i) if they understood the codes; (ii) if the codes are sufficiently different from each other to prevent confusion; (iii) to indicate their agreement on a five-point scale with coding done by the researcher; (iv) to code three curricula themselves; and (v) to ask any further questions they might have in connection with the coding process, for example, if there was a lack of clarity in some respect.

5.2.6 Analysing the results of the coding process

Grouped thematically, the preliminary results of the coding process according to Graneheim and Lundman (2004) and Richards and Morse (2007) appear in Table 5.9. In order to obtain a clear overview, only one example of a meaning unit per category is provided here. The sub-themes proposed in 5.2.3 above have been put in bold.

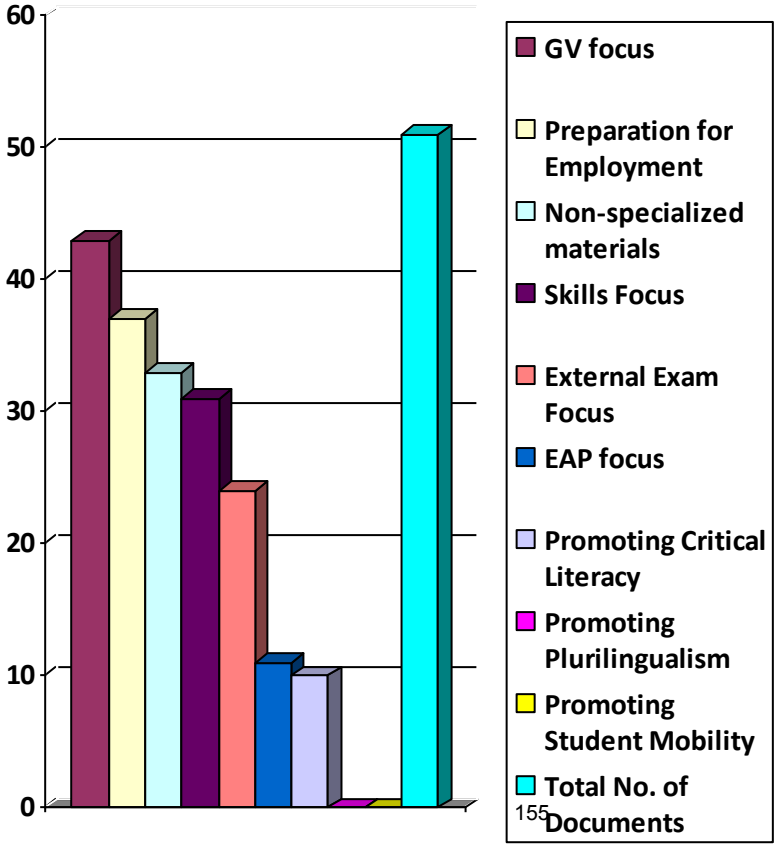
Table 5.9 First round of coding

Descriptive Coding			**Topic Coding**	**Analytic Coding**
Meaning unit (MU)	**Condense MU**	**Interpretation of MU**	**Sub-theme**	**Theme**
Learning outcomes: To focus on listening and speaking skills	Emphasis of listening and speaking skills	Skills are decontextualized and seen as goals in themselves	**Focus on some or all language skills**	Lack of specialized materials leads teachers to fall back on available materials and methods (e.g. CLT)
BGB: 22-23 Phrasals	(-)	Units 22-23 of Business Grammar Builder covering Phrasal Verbs are covered in class	**Focus on grammar and vocabulary learning (GV)**	
Indicative Learning Resources: Business Grammar Builder, P. Emmerson, MacMillan, (latest version)	*Business Grammar Builder* is a prescribed work for grammar exercises	A book containing grammar exercises taken from business-related texts is prescribed	**Use of commercial materials**	
CPE Listening Exam	(-)	Listening Evaluation based on format of *Certificate of Proficiency in English* examination	**Reference to external examinations**	
Presentations: Planning and Techniques	(Students learn how to prepare and make presentations)	Applying presenting skills on a business-related topic	**Preparation for employment**	Teachers focus on training skills which are supposedly useful for working life
At the end of the course students will know and will be able to apply the conventions for writing academic papers	students learn how to write academic papers	Training academic writing as preparation for study in other academic subjects	**Preparation for academic study in English (Focus on EAP)**	Teachers seek to prepare students for academic writing in English to assist them with their current studies

At the end of the 3rd semester students will be able to: critically analyse a text; defend or attack a statement	critical analysis of a text; argue for or against a point	Students are encouraged to 'read between the lines of a text' and evaluate explicit or implicit arguments and assumptions	**Development of critical literacy**	Teachers encourage students to challenge perceived wisdom
(no meaning units detected)	(-)	(-)	**Promotion of student mobility**	(-)
(no meaning units detected)	(-)	(-)	**Promotion of plurilingualism**	(-)

As can be seen from Table 5.9, two of the codes (Promotion of Student Mobility and Promotion of Plurilingualism) did not receive any matches in the preliminary round of analysis. An overview of the relative number of codes assigned is provided in Figure 5.10.

Figure 5.10 Relative Quantities of Codes, Preliminary Values



In the first round of coding, additional data was detected which did not correspond with the codes contained in Figure 5.10 (the initial list of proposed codes). This can happen in a directed content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). Therefore, in order to reflect the data more fully, a second round of coding was carried out.

In table 5.11, which reflects the second round of coding, my ability to understand the data was improved upon by eliciting the views of teachers in whose curriculum the data appeared. The figures in curved brackets { } in the MU field indicate the number of times these meaning units appeared. New or hitherto unmentioned sub-themes and themes are underlined.

Table 5.11 Interpretation of meaning units not coded in the first round of analysis

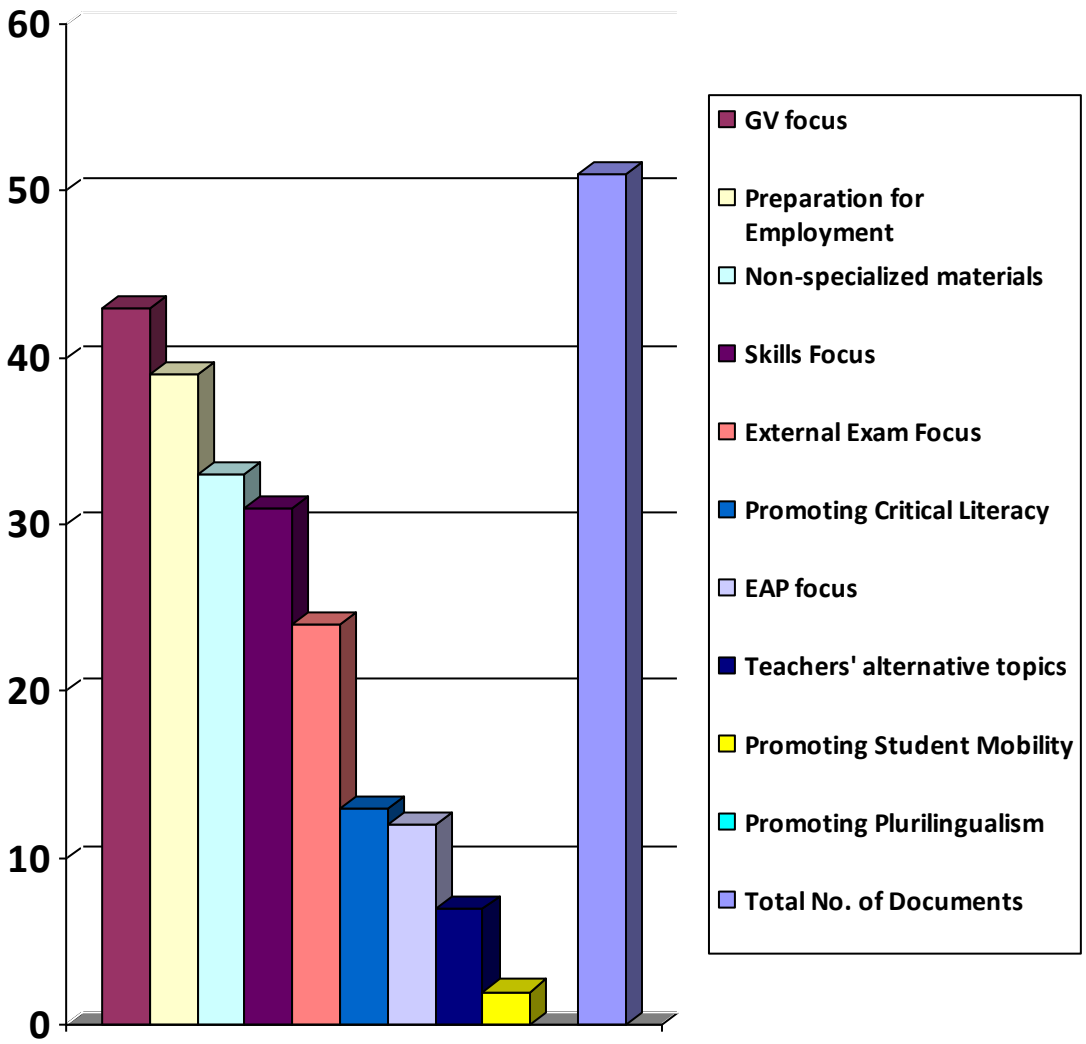
Descriptive Coding			**Topic Coding**	**Analytic Coding**
Meaning unit (MU)	**Condense MU**	**Interpretation of MU**	**Sub-theme**	**Theme**
Guest speaker [student in a higher semester talks about experiences at a foreign university] {1}	Guest speaker on mobility	Account of an exchange semester spent abroad at an English-medium university	Promotion of student mobility	Teacher seeks to increase student awareness of study options abroad
Film / Special Interest Day {2}	(-)	Teacher suggests that class watches a film on the life of Steve Jobs	Teacher seeks alternative to standard class topics	Teacher adds content to curriculum to reflect his/her own interests
The Soccer World Cup 2010, Black Economic Empowerment, Two South African Presidents, Education in South Africa {4}	Contemporary socio-economic issues in South Africa	Students become aware of current socio-economic issues in South Africa and prepare a presentation on the topic		
Lord of the Flies by William Golding (any English edition) {1}	Lord of the Flies	This work is set as optional reading in an external language exam; local teacher makes it compulsory reading		

Optional summer reading: *Uptown World* {1}	Uptown World	A teacher sets a book he/she has written as optional reading in the holidays		
Communication Theory; Mode, Tenor and Field (Halliday and Hasan, 1985) {1}	Communication Theory	Students analyse the demands of academic presentations in terms of *field*, *mode* and *tenor* and anticipate potential areas of difficulty	Preparation for academic study in English (Focus on EAP)	Teacher seeks to increase student awareness of the nature of spoken academic English
Video 'Tea with The Economist' {1}	Tea with The Economist	*The Economist* interviews an economist on the aftermath of the credit crunch.	Preparation for employment	Teacher seeks to increase student awareness of current economic issues
Case Study 3: Travel Lodge; Case Study 4: Indesit {1}	Travel Lodge and Indesit Case Studies	Realistic case studies depict the situation of customers complaining about poor company service	Development of critical literacy	Teacher seeks to make students aware of their rights as consumers
The Character of a Corporation - Goffee R, and Jones, G. (2003) {2}	*The Character of a Corporation*	Prescribed reading material on organisational culture helps students analyse their own experiences		Teacher encourages students to make critical use of analytical tools provided in literature

As can be seen in this table, two new sub-themes were detected that did not arise from the previous analysis. These were 'Promotion of student mobility' (one MU) and 'Teacher seeks alternative to standard class topics'.

Discussion of these results will be deferred to the final part of this chapter, but it seems clear that the academic and critical elements of the syllabus are given far less weight than business- and purely language-related topics. Promoting student mobility and plurilingualism is apparently a low priority, and this too merits further attention.

Figure 5.12 Updated overview of relative number of codes allocated



5.2.6.1 Member-Checking

In Figure 5.13, the second round of coding is shown together with the values of the member checks described in section 5.3.5 above. In the member checks, five members of staff were asked to rate on a scale of 5 (5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree) their agreement with the themes developed in Tables 5.8 and 5.9 above. The themes are underlined in the 'Theme' column and represented in descending order, where the strength of member

agreement with the researcher's results is compared. Overall, an average of 4.1 (out a maximum of 5) was achieved.

Table 5.13 Codes with member checks, in descending value

Descriptive Coding			**Topic Coding**	**Analytic Coding**
Meaning unit (MU)	**Condense MU**	**Interpretation of MU**	**Sub-theme**	**Theme**
The Soccer World Cup 2010, Black Economic Empowerment, Two South African Presidents, Education in South Africa	Contemporary socio-economic issues in South Africa	Students become aware of current socio-economic issues in South Africa and prepare a presentation on the topic	Teacher seeks alternative to standard class topics	Teacher adds content to curriculum to reflect his/her own interests Member Check: 4.75
Optional summer reading: Uptown World {1}	Uptown World	A teacher sets a book he/she has written as optional reading in the holidays	Teacher seeks alternative to standard class topics	Teacher adds content to curriculum to reflect his/her own interests Member Check: 4.75
Communication Theory; Mode, Tenor and Field (Halliday and Hasan, 1985) {1}	Communication Theory	Students analyse the demands of academic presentations in terms of field, mode and tenor and anticipate potential areas of difficulty	Preparation for academic study in English (Focus on EAP)	Teacher seeks to increase student awareness of the nature of spoken academic English Member Check: 4.75
Video 'Tea with The Economist' {1}	Tea with The Economist	The Economist interviews an economist on the aftermath of the credit crunch	Preparation for employment	Teacher seeks to increase student awareness of current economic issues Member Check: 4.75
Guest speaker [student in a higher semester talks about experiences at a foreign university]	Guest speaker on mobility	Account of an exchange semester spent abroad at an English-medium university	Promotion of student mobility	Teacher seeks to increase student awareness of study options abroad Member Check: 4.5

Presentations: Planning and Techniques	(Students learn how to prepare and make presentations)	Applying presenting skills on a business-related topic	Preparation for employment	Teachers focus on training skills which are supposedly useful for working life Member Check: 4.4
At the end of the 3rd semester students will be able to: critically analyse a text; defend or attack a statement	critical analysis of a text; argue for or against a point	students are encouraged to 'read between the lines of a text' and evaluate explicit or implicit arguments and assumptions	Development of critical literacy	Teachers encourage students to challenge perceived wisdom Member Check: 4.4
Lord of the Flies by William Golding (any English edition) {1}	Lord of the Flies	This work is set as optional reading in an external language exam; local teacher makes it compulsory reading	Teacher seeks alternative to standard class topics	Teacher adds content to curriculum to reflect his/her own interests Member Check: 4.25
At the end of the course students will know and will be able to apply the conventions for writing academic papers	students learn how to write academic papers	training academic writing as preparation for study in other academic subjects	Preparation for academic study in English (Focus on EAP)	Teachers seek to prepare students for academic writing in English to assist them with their current studies Member Check: 4.2
Indicative Learning Resources: Business Grammar Builder, P. Emmerson, MacMillan, (latest version)	*Business Grammar Builder* is a prescribed work for grammar exercises	A book containing grammar exercises taken from business-related texts is prescribed	Use of commercial materials	Lack of specialized materials leads teachers to fall back on available materials and methods (e.g. CLT) Member Check: 4
The Character of a Corporation - Goffee R, and Jones, G. (2003) {2}	The Character of a Corporation	Prescribed reading material on organisational culture helps students analyse their own experiences	Development of critical literacy	Teacher encourages students to make critical use of analytical tools provided in literature Member Check: 4

BGB: 22-23 Phrasals	(-)	Units 22-23 of Business Grammar Builder covering Phrasal Verbs are covered in class	Focus on grammar and vocabulary learning	Lack of specialized materials leads teachers to fall back on available materials and methods (e.g. CLT) Member Check: 3.6
CPE Listening Exam	(-)	Listening Evaluation based on format of Cambridge ESOL *Certificate of Proficiency in English* examination	Reference to external examinations	Lack of specialized materials leads teachers to fall back on available materials and methods (e.g. CLT) Member Check: 3.6
Case Study 3: Travel Lodge; Case Study 4: Indesit {1}	Travel Lodge and Indesit Case Studies	Realistic case studies depict the situation of customers complaining about poor company service	Development of critical literacy	Teacher seeks to make students aware of their rights as consumers Member Check: 3.5
Learning outcomes: To focus on listening and speaking skills	Emphasis of listening and speaking skills	Skills are decontextualized and seen as goals in themselves	Focus on some or all language skills	Lack of specialized materials and methods (e.g. CLT) Member Check: 3

If values of the Likert scale - (5) strong agreement, (4) agreement, and (3) neither agreement nor disagreement - are considered, then a member-check value of lower than four probably indicates some disagreement. In fact, there was only disagreement in respect of five of the sixteen themes proposed by the researcher. Furthermore, four of these five occurred in respect of one theme:

> Lack of specialized materials leads teachers to fall back on available materials and methods (e.g. CLT)

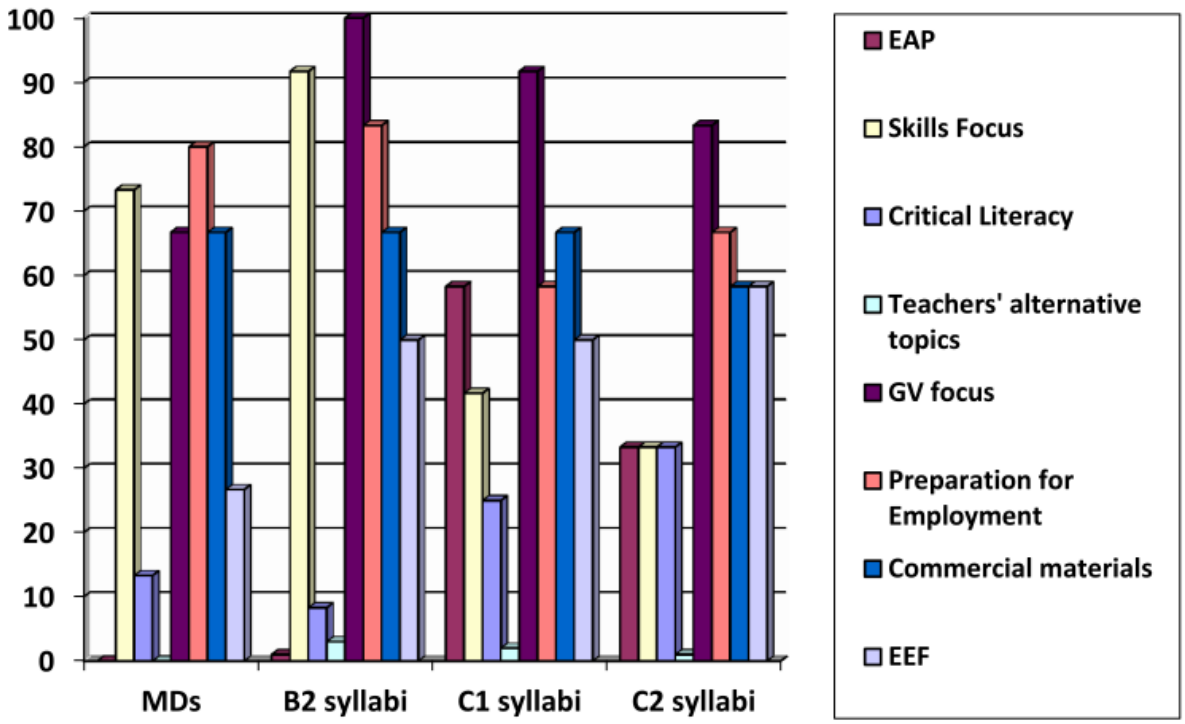
Further investigation revealed that while three agreed or strongly agreed with this theme in all cases, two disagreed. When questioned about their decision, they said that it was pointless to refer to the materials and methods in use as not being specialized, due to the lack of a more specialized alternative. By implication, they doubted that the scripts produced by teachers (which in my view are likely to be more appropriate for local needs) would be more specialized than commercial materials.

Furthermore, the member check in which staff members were invited to assign the eleven codes mentioned in Figure 5.11 above yielded an average correspondence of 80% with the researcher's codes. The five members rated two documents each, one of which they had drawn up themselves, meaning that a sample of ten (out of a total of 51) was checked for coding accuracy.

To arrive at a closer understanding of the data, I decided to investigate whether the assignment of the codes was more or less the same across all three English classes (aligned with CEFR levels B2, C1 and C2) or whether this was not the case. In other words, the question was whether a particular CEFR level would figure more prominently in a particular code. Figure 5.14 shows the results of this CEFR-level related analysis.

For reasons of space, two proposed codes that received very little confirmation in the data (Promotion of Mobility, Promotion of Plurilingualism) have been omitted in Figure 5.14. In general, Figure 5.14 reveals some strongly diverging distribution of codes among the curriculum documents. Firstly, although English for Academic Purposes was part of the curriculum in C1 and C2 classes, it did not appear in the Module Descriptions, and only once in a B2 syllabus. In a similar sense, Critical Literacy was referred more frequently at C2 and C1 levels than in the MDs or B2 syllabi. Furthermore, a focus on skills features strongly in the Module Descriptions (MDs) and B2 syllabi, but is considerably weaker in C2 and C1 classes. It is also noticeable that EEF (External Examination Formats) appear more strongly in the syllabi than in the module descriptions.

Figure 5.14 Relative distributions of codes as percentages in Syllabi and MDs (Module Descriptions), in the three English streams (CEFR B2, C1 and C2)

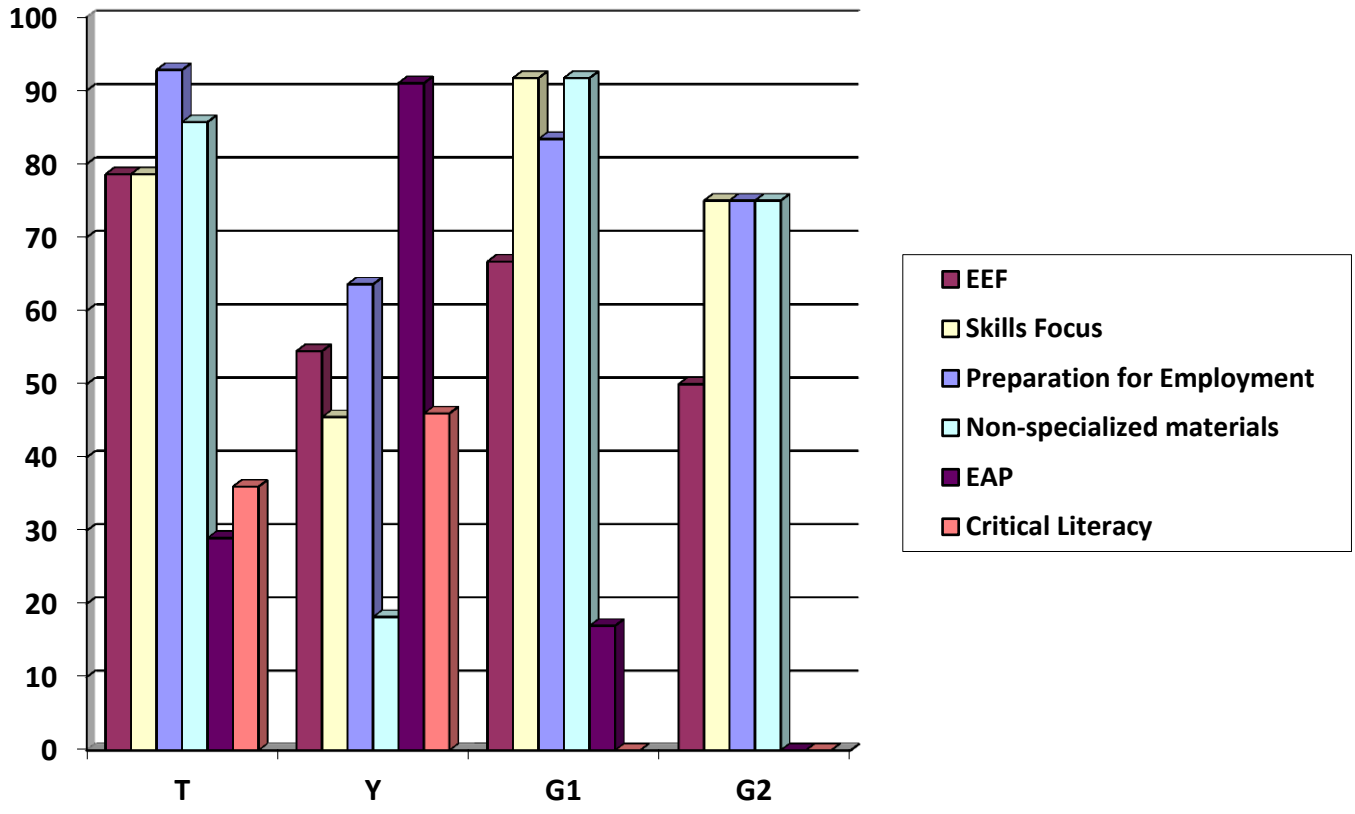


This finding, i.e. that the B2 class should be encoded in a noticeably different way from the C classes, especially in terms of skills, EAP and Critical Literacy, is perhaps the most surprising result of the whole analysis, since this is not the intended or planned outcome of the English-teaching team. Such an intention would make no sense: after all, the B2 class faces the same task (i.e. to study Business Administration in English over two semesters) as the other English classes. Nevertheless, EAP and Critical Literacy were not included in the B2 syllabus, though the 'higher' classes (C1 and C2) had significantly more exposure to them. To try and establish why this should be so, I analysed the syllabi again. This time the syllabi were examined on the basis of which teacher, or group of teachers, had been responsible for producing them, to determine the possibility of whether teacher choices regarding materials were a relevant factor.

In order to analyse individual teacher choices, it helps to know how many teachers were involved in drawing up the syllabi. In total, the data sample reflects syllabi drawn

up by a total of nine teachers, as represented in Figure 5.15 below. Some of them taught irregularly in the TP programme: five teachers in the sample together contributed only 8 documents to the sample (G2 in Figure 5.15). Two teachers together contributed 12 documents (G1), whereas teachers T and Y contributed 14 and 11 documents to the sample respectively. It should be mentioned that, as a logical consequence of my insider status, examples of my own syllabi appear in the data pool. Since teachers T, Y, G1 and G2 all contributed at least six curricula (i.e. a full English programme for a three-year Bachelor), it was possible to make a rough comparison between them. Figure 5.15 focuses on those topics where significant differences in code quantity existed between the three streams (B2, C1, C2).

Figure 5.15 - Codes allocated to teachers T and Y, and teacher groups G1 and G2, in percentages



It was striking that the teachers in groups G1 and G2 had apparently concentrated largely on language (Skills), neglecting Critical Literacy. Significantly, these groups (G1 and G2) were those who customarily taught the B2 stream. On the other hand, teachers Y and T, who taught C1 and C2, included Critical Literacy and EAP in their

lessons to a greater extent. It is also noticeable that teacher Y is different from the other teachers in that he/she focuses less on skills and places more emphasis on EAP.

5.3 Discussion of Findings

5.3.1 General Findings

At a quantitative level, five codes: GV Focus, Preparation for Employment, Non-specialized materials, Skills Focus, and External Exam Focus represent 75% of all codes detected, whereas the other six codes are less well represented (25% of all codes). It might therefore appear that the TP English syllabus is dominated by the content relating to the most frequent codes. However, in my view it was necessary that the analysis should go beyond a mere quantitative account of the data. In particular, it is important that one can arrive at some idea *why* the syllabus appears to contain the content it does.

The overall picture that emerges is that of a curriculum in which some themes are dominant and in this respect the concept of curriculum is shared throughout the department. Preparation for Employment was a topic of central importance shared by the entire department and across all English proficiency levels (C2, C2 and B2). In the case of the five most frequent codes, it appears from the document pool that the English department, almost without exception, includes grammar and vocabulary exercises (GV Focus) in its syllabi, along with work-related topics (Preparation for Employment). Furthermore, a use of (mainly commercial) materials (Non-specialized Materials) and reference to commercial language examinations (External Examination Formats) was also popular. Due to my 12 years of experience in the TP English team, this did not come as a surprise (although, as will be seen below, this status quo is in some respects not unproblematic). For the local English department, these areas are familiar and common ground, but even established practice may need to be re-evaluated from time to time, and such a re-interpretation is the primary goal of this study. In Chapter 6 I intend to argue that preparation for working life is a typical feature of CLT-influenced practice and may as a result lack a critical element required by Wallace (2002), Magnan (2007) and others.

Beyond the common curriculum core as identified above, differences have been revealed in teaching practices, which in my view is a possible indication of teacher agency (Archer, 1995), where teacher preferences actively influence syllabus content. For example, the code Skills Focus was not equally represented throughout the English streams, and same applies to the less frequent codes Critical Literacy and EAP. In short, the following aspects of the content analysis, based on information as represented in Figures 5.12, 5.14 and 5.15 above, seem particularly worthy of attention:

i) unexpected differences in syllabus content in relation to the B2 stream, in respect to EAP, Critical Literacy and Skills Focus; see Figure 5.14 above.

ii) the apparent lack of Student Mobility and Plurilingualism in the syllabus, though these are closely linked at the highest policy (EU) level; see 5.3.3 below.

5.3.2 The Role of Teacher Preferences, Beliefs and Materials: Possibilities for teacher agency

The differences in syllabus content, as represented in Figure 5.15, suggested that teachers have a strong influence over what content is contained in the local English syllabus, possibly because they adapt their approach to the level of class they are teaching. It is interesting that one team member, when he/she heard about this result in respect of the B2 class, commented that this was as it should be, since 'the B2 class probably needed the practice'. By extension, it seems that teachers of the higher classes (C1 and C2) felt that these classes need less skills practice and can therefore focus on alternative and more academic material, e.g. development of critical literacy.

The idea that teachers in the local context have some control over syllabus content is also suggested, though to a lesser extent, by the code 'Teachers' Alternative Topics' in Figure 5.14. One can therefore argue that teacher agency plays a role in the TP English syllabus. In Baldauf's (2006) terms, this could be considered as agency at the

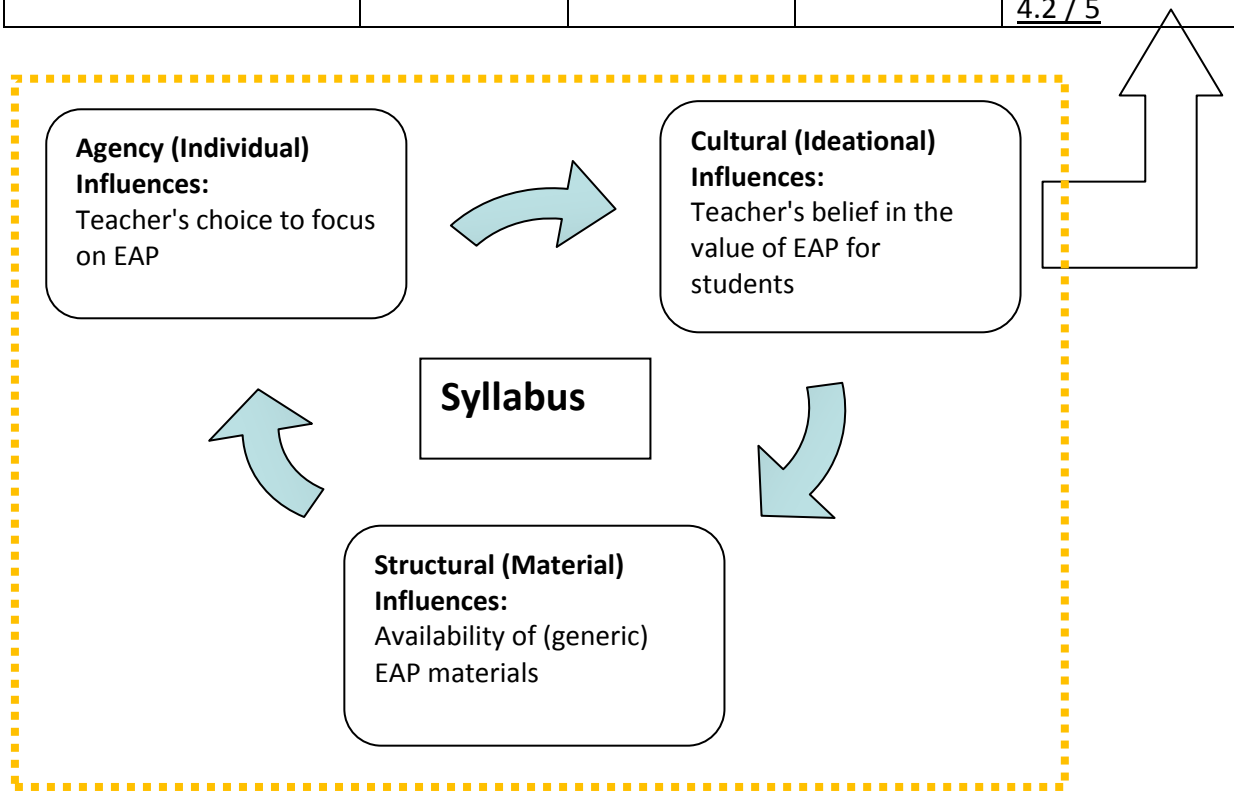
micro level. Baldauf discusses the question of whether agency at the micro level can be considered language planning in the strict sense. I would maintain that while local preferences as to the B2 English syllabus may not have been planned, they do present a de facto language policy (Shohamy, 2007). Since the ultimate goal of this study is to critically re-interpret the local English syllabus, the supposed influence of teacher preferences as a manifestation of de facto policy will be investigated further.

To investigate this question, and also further examine issues that have been raised above, particularly that of teacher agency, I would like to revisit the results of the content analysis from the perspective of critical realism, as proposed in Chapter 4. To do this, codes selected from Figure 5.13 will be analysed, in particular cases where members of staff disagree with my coding, as these cases merit further discussion. Figure 5.16 illustrates topics where teacher agency, as expressed in choices regarding syllabus content, appeared to have a strong effect, in particular EAP, Critical Literacy and Skills. As noted in Chapter 4, Archer's (1995) concept of social reality involves the interplay not only of cultural (ideational) and structural (material) elements, but also of individual agency. These interact behind the scenes, so to speak, at Bhaskar's (2008) level of the *real,* to influence surface reality, in this context the documents representing the English syllabus.

The representation of Archer's (1995) concepts in Figure 5.16 is inspired by Priestly (2011), where the arrows represent the idea that the various factors bringing about change in social reality influence each other. I used the term 'generic' with regard to Structural Influences for two reasons: firstly, because it is suggested by the Meaning Unit in Figure 5.16, which refers to the conventions of academic papers in a general sense, and secondly, due to the nature of the materials themselves, which cover topics such as correct citations and referencing, without making reference to any specific academic context. Nevertheless, the discussion in 5.1.3 above puts the general EAP of this kind in question, so this is an issue which will be pursued in Chapter 6.

Figure 5.16 Content Analysis and Archer's (1995) Concepts: EAP

Descriptive Coding			**Topic Coding**	**Analytic Coding**
Meaning unit (MU)	**Condense MU**	**Interpretation of MU**	**Sub-theme**	**Theme**
At the end of the course students will know and will be able to apply the conventions for writing academic papers	students learn how to write academic papers	training academic writing as preparation for study in other academic subjects	Preparation for academic study in English (Focus on EAP)	Teachers seek to prepare students for academic writing in English to assist them with their current studies Member Check: 4.2 / 5



In this sense, it seems that *structural* influences, in particular what kind of teaching materials are readily available, have an effect on the syllabus. In general, I have suggested in Figure 5.16 that teacher preferences as represented by agency combine with structural influences to shape the curriculum. The EGAP/ESAP debate (Hyland, 2006) referred to in Chapter 1, may takes on a new dimension. I wish to argue that the choice between ESAP and EGAP could in practice be redefined as a choice between existing (generic) materials and (supposedly more specific) materials that are

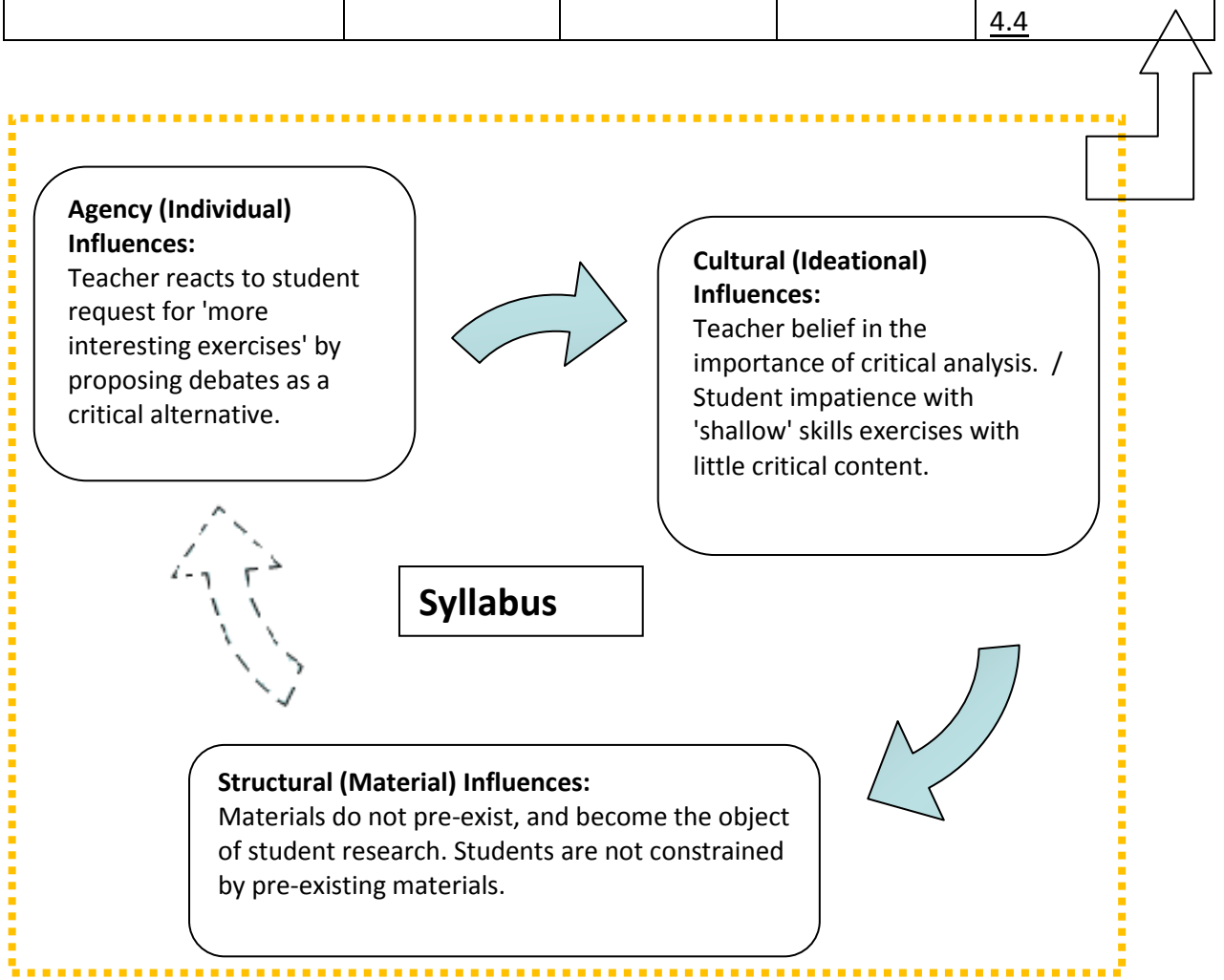
still being developed, at least in the local context. In simple terms, what I am arguing is that without complete teaching materials to support ESAP content, it is not surprising that the version of EAP detected in the syllabus was more on the side of EGAP.

Teacher agency also plays a role, I would maintain, in the treatment of skills in the syllabus. Figure 5.17 deals with the content analysis findings for Skills with Archer's (1995) concepts added. This was the encoding which engendered the greatest disagreement within the English team, and it seems that such disagreement warrants further attention. As discussed earlier in this chapter, the (two of five) members who disagreed thought it was pointless to refer to the materials and methods as insufficiently specialized, since a more specialized alternative was not available. In this sense, they disagreed with my analytic coding. What the staff members objected to was the term 'non-specialized' materials, arguing that more specialized materials did not exist, thus negating the need for the term ‘non-specialized’. In my view, this belief is mistaken, since teachers are not necessarily and should not be confined to relying on existing materials, but rather can adapt these materials as they see fit, or produce materials themselves.

This may be time-consuming and difficult, but it is not impossible. For a teacher, self-produced materials presuppose an independence that is in my experience not easily achieved, where a teacher forgoes the easy remedy of appealing to materials (often in the form of commercially available textbooks) that are 'ready-made' and takes the time to produce specialized materials of his/her own. This reflects one kind of agency. Use of commercial textbooks is also acceptable if one can 'dip into' them without being reliant on them for classroom activities and topics. This represents a second of agency, in my view. A third kind of agency is that represented by the teacher who stays with tried-and-tested procedures and textbooks. It is therefore the choice of the teacher to develop new material, or not: agency in general does not always have to change the status quo (in this case, pre-existing, commercial materials) but can go along with it. However, I would argue that a potential for teacher agency to develop more materials is revealed in the situation represented in Figure 5.17.

Figure 5.17 Developing Materials through Teacher Agency

Descriptive Coding			Topic Coding	Analytic Coding
At the end of the 3rd semester students will be able to: critically analyse a text; defend or attack a statement	critical analysis of a text; argue for or against a point	students are encouraged to 'read between the lines of a text' and evaluate explicit or implicit arguments and assumptions	Development of critical literacy	Teachers encourage students to challenge perceived wisdom Member Check: 4.4



The dotted arrow in Figure 5.18 is intended to indicate that in this case, structural influences in form of materials for use in class have yet to emerge. However, it is possible that such materials will emerge given the ideational influences in this case. Archer (1995:14) allows for such a scenario, arguing that one emergent property may pre-exist (and lead to the creation of another):

> Properties and powers of some strata are anterior to those of others precisely because the latter emerge from the former over time, for emergence takes time since it derives from interaction and its consequences which necessarily occur in time.

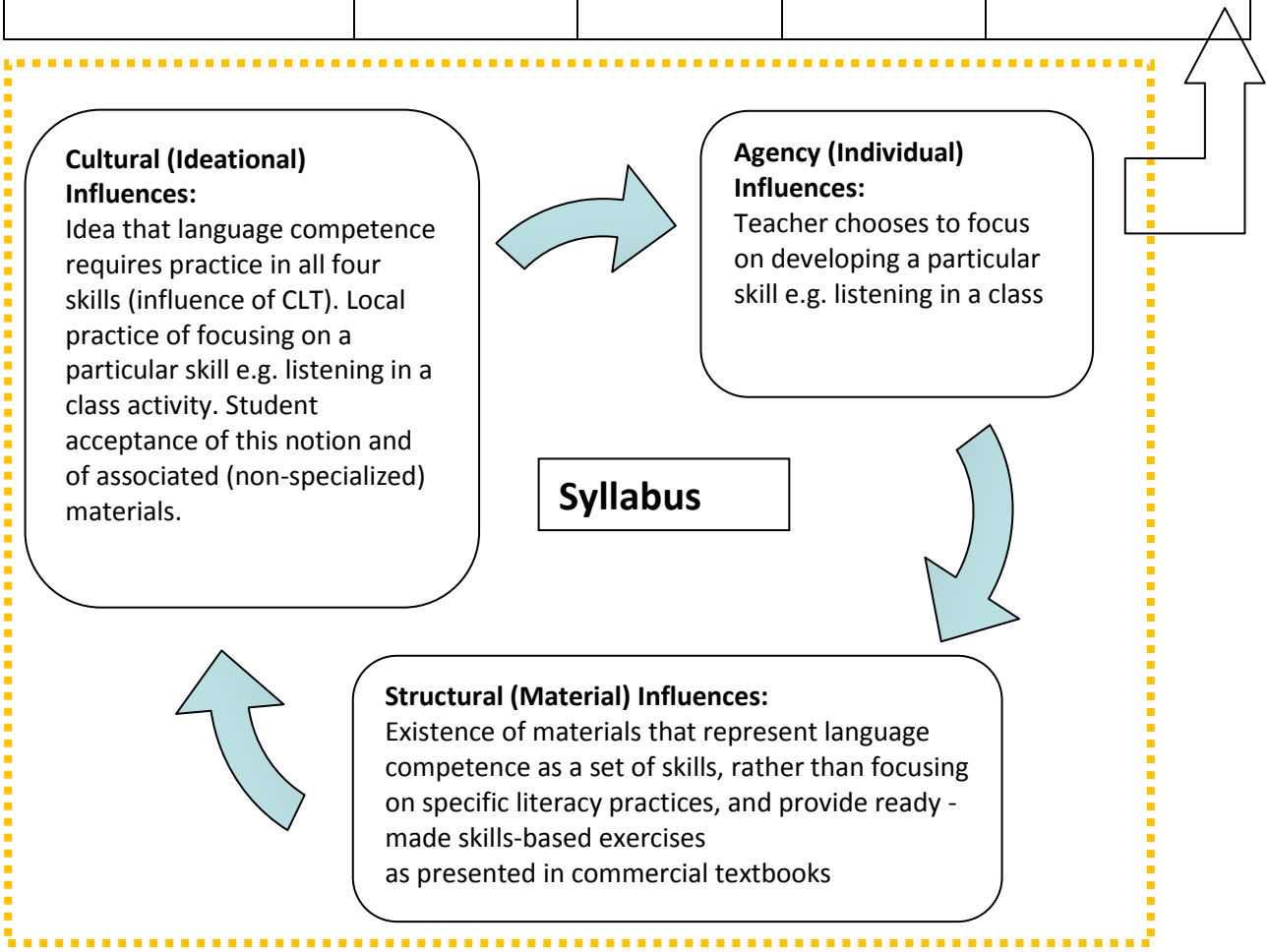
It is my contention that the structural element is lacking in this case, and so it seems possible that the relatively infrequent references to Critical Literacy in the document pool are, at least in part, due to the lack of available materials, where 'available materials' refer to those materials which are available and accepted in the English department. Where Agency and Cultural Influences exist, however, it is conceivable that teaching materials will be produced to reflect them, as Archer would contend.

Archer (1995:295) refers to cultural change as 'morphogenesis', but to situations where culture reproduces itself as 'morphostasis'. This change of the status quo, or reproduction of it, starts at the level of the three properties which shape reality, i.e. agency, structural properties, and cultural properties, *because* they shape reality. What I am trying to argue in favour of here is morphogenesis, a change of the status quo, can be brought about to some extent by teacher agency, if teachers are willing to abandon commercial materials and create new ones. However, some of my colleagues may choose not to do so, thereby reproducing the status quo (morphostasis).

Figure 5.18 essentially describes the reproduction of the status quo. The fact that the member check received the low value of 3 suggests that some members of staff did not agree with my critical view of the materials (Lack of specialized materials). Their agency supports the status quo (morphostasis); mine supports morphogenesis.

Figure 5.18 Analysis of Skills following Archer (1995)

Descriptive Coding			Topic Coding	Analytic Coding
Learning outcomes: To focus on listening and speaking skills	Emphasis of listening and speaking skills	Skills are decontextualized and seen as goals in themselves	Focus on some or all language skills	Lack of specialized materials and use of non-specialized methods (e.g. CLT) Member Check: 3



In my view, Figure 5.18, like Figure 5.17, suggests that syllabus content is influenced by teacher preferences (choices and beliefs), especially with regards to materials. I used the term 'non-specialized' in this sense to refer to textbooks which may for instance deal with business English from the language learner's perspective, but which lack any critical perspective or an awareness of literacy practices. In particular, the B2 stream seems to have been affected by the use of this kind of textbook. The full details of which books were used in the B2 syllabi can be found in the curriculum

documents reproduced in Appendix A, but where the 2011 B2 syllabi are concerned, a course book entitled *New Market Leader*, Upper Intermediate (Cotton et al, 2011) was used in four (out of six) semesters. The reason is that the book discusses different business topics, for example 'Raising Finance' or 'Job Satisfaction' in each chapter, and all chapters have in common a focus on skills exercises i.e. reading, writing, listening, or speaking. Looking at the content overview page (2011: 5), chapters usually include a combination of skills exercises, and care is taken to ensure that practice in all four skills are represented in the book. The critical-realist analysis therefore reveals a hidden link between the 'Skills' and 'Unspecialized Materials' and complements the content analysis, which hints at this link but does not make it plain.

In Archer's terms, material influences are only one of three influences on the syllabus. An examination of the other B2 syllabi in the document pool (seven in number), which were taught by different teachers to the 2011 syllabi, revealed that these teachers preferred to use their own materials. In the syllabus, these were categorized under conventional skills headings, i.e. reading, writing, etc. It therefore appeared that these teachers were not constrained by the exercises contained in a course book, but still relied on the CLT-related skills categories to conceptualise and plan their lessons.

For example, where a syllabus simply describes a class activity as 'Reading' or 'Listening', I would argue that this obfuscates the focus of the exercise – what, exactly, is being read, or listened to, and is this material unproblematically accepted, or is it subjected to critical analysis? Such skills exercises necessarily have to deal with a topic, and the question of which topics are deemed suitable for skills exercises is an interesting one in its own right. Whatever topics are unproblematically presented in skills exercises can, in a manner that may not be immediately obvious, privilege certain views and assumptions, e.g. neo-liberalist views of business practices. If a teacher simply commands a class to 'read', one runs the risk that classes will simply go through the text in a mechanical way, and be content with understanding it, but not engage with it at any deeper level or question its focus and/or assumptions. In this sense, I would argue that teachers are negatively constrained by what I referred to in the analytic coding section of Figure 5.17, the influence of non-specialized methods, e.g. CLT. The representation in Figure 5.17 also suggests that two of the most frequently detected codes, Non-specialized materials, and Skill Focus, are in fact

closely associated, since the presence of the one is conducive to the other. This was due to the fact that the non-specialized, commercial materials had the tendency to conceptualise their contents in the vocabulary of CLT, e.g. the four skills. Each chapter of *New Market Leader,* for instance, would attempt to include exercises in most or all the skills.

5.3.3 Perceived Neglect of Student Mobility and Plurilingualism in the Syllabus

The analysis suggested that 'promotion of student mobility' seemed to receive very little support, and 'plurilingualism' was almost totally neglected. In other words, if these policies are reflected in the English syllabus, they are not immediately apparent. Notably, a member of staff challenged this finding during member checking, saying that the TP by definition, through its practice of promoting teaching and learning in three languages, fosters plurilingualism. In order to verify this assumption, one would have to evaluate a student's trilingual language competence before commencement and again after completion of the TP, so its truth remains to be seen. This presents a topic for further research, though it is perhaps beyond the scope of this study. Nevertheless, the fact that TP students are required to study in three different languages at partner campuses is arguably in line with the EU policy of mobility and plurilingualism, even though a causal relationship cannot be established with any confidence. Furthermore, the ultimate test of mobility would be to ascertain to what extent student mobility develops (in terms of their work or further studies) after graduation. While my institution has conducted research on the career development of students after graduation, which suggested that 80% enter employment, it was unfortunately not recorded in which country the graduates went to for work (Wombacher, 2012).

Taking a critical-realist approach, one could argue that Student Mobility and Plurilingualism are not strongly represented in the English syllabus because they are not supported by Agency (individual) or Material influences. Since at least some of the TP English team seem to believe that plurilingualism and mobility are achieved by the de facto conditions of the TP, it follows that they would not find it necessary to include it in the syllabus. There is therefore no support for individual teacher agency in this respect. Moreover, teachers have produced no teaching materials for this

purpose (no material influence), and to my knowledge no commercial materials of this kind are available. In the case of plurilingualism, this might be due to the influence of CLT, which rejects the grammar-translation pedagogy (which includes other languages as part of the English lesson), as one which does not sufficiently consider the needs of students (Jacobs and Farrell, 2003).

Such rejection of translation exercises may extend to an omission of helpful exercises such as 'false friends' from the syllabus, since this requires an awareness of (and an ability to translate from) students' L1. Moreover, if classroom practice follows an English-only policy, as is common in much ELT (Auerbach, 1993), this is likely to focus on English, and discourage the use of French or German. Jessner adds (2008: 3) that even where multilingual learners are concerned, their multilingualism is not used as a resource for language learning, with 'the only guarantee for successful instructed language learning seemed to be strict separation of the language in the multilingual learner and in the classroom'. Such an English-only focus is inimical to the trinational spirit of the TP, and does not promote plurilingualism. This leads one to question the assumption that seems to exist in the department that plurilingualism is sufficiently taken care of in another subjects; a promotion of plurilingualism, for example through the creation of an awareness of inter-language vocabulary issues, should take place in English classes. However, while there could be more inclusion of content that promotes multilingualism in TP English classes, one has to give the programme credit for offering academic support in three languages. In her article, 'Reconsidering the role of language-in-education-policies in multilingual higher education contexts' (in press: 3), Van der Walt points out (2013: 125) that an English-only education policy has been unsuccessful in many contexts, as it does not consider the needs of L2 students.

5.4 Conclusions

In summary, the conceptualisation of English-language teaching that emerges from the data is that English-language teaching, as interpreted by the TP English department, seems to be concerned mainly with grammar, vocabulary and the four skills, contextualised in generic, business-related, commercial materials that focus on standards generated by external exams. The data reveal some differences of opinion

in the team: whereas some prefer to stick with tried-and-tested materials, others, such as teacher Y (Figure 5.15, section 5.2.6) uses commercial materials to a far lesser degree than does teacher T, for example. As I argued in 5.3.2, agency can either contribute towards the reproduction, or contribution to a change, of the status quo. While in my view there will always be a place for grammar, vocabulary and the four skills, combined with business-related materials, as the most basic feature of language support in the context of the TP, I have cautioned against an excessively passive acceptance of existing materials, if these materials then define the course content to a significant degree.

The data presented in this chapter sheds light on some key issues, which were first raised in Chapter 1, and need to be dealt with in the next and final chapter of this study:

i) It appears that the content of English syllabi is significantly influenced by the preferences of the particular teacher that designed them; Archer (1995) emphasises the significance of agency, and the implications of this in the local context need to be further explored.

ii) By and large, EAP appears to have been neglected in the syllabus, and what data there is appears to point to an EGAP approach; however, ESAP was discussed as a specific literacy practice which seems to make more sense in the specialized context of business studies.

iii) Although preparation for employment seems to represent a major part of syllabus content, it remains unclear what kind of employment that might be. The code 'Preparation for Employment' was detected numerous times in the data; however, as specified in 5.2.4.1 above, codes were allocated to meaning units that 'refer to training of generic business skills, e.g. presenting'. This approach was taken in order to reveal the proportion of the English syllabus that was business-related in a general sense.

iv) There appears to be insufficient promotion of critical literacy; instead, the syllabus apparently devotes much time to 'skills' exercises, with little apparent critical content.

These issues will receive specific attention in the final chapter, as they represent themes of central interest, but in addition general comments about the findings of the data analysis, and further analysis based on Archer (1995) will be made.

6.0 Conclusions

6.0 Re-considering the research questions

This study has considered two sets of data, firstly horizontal and vertical influences on language policy, and secondly the interpretation of these influences in the local English curriculum, as represented in the English syllabi. In these respects, the analysis in Chapter 5 yielded thought-provoking data and raised a number of questions. This final chapter will firstly offer a summary of the findings pertaining to language policy and its interpretation of higher-level policy at the micro (institutional) level. In the context of micro-level policy, the study revealed evidence of teacher agency as a force influencing language planning.

This study has also focused on the local interpretation of EGAP/ESAP, and in this respect the data seem to suggest that a 'generic' EGAP approach is being followed, but this may be misleading, since there appears very little EAP in the English syllabus. Moreover, while the content analysis established that 'Preparation for Work' was a

frequent code in the data, this code referred only in a general sense to business-related content, and therefore Chapter 5 did not yield insights into what kind of work preparation is included in the syllabus. Next, could or should the standard pedagogy in use (CLT) be supplemented by a more critical pedagogy? A final question which arose is whether the relative neglect of plurilingualism and 'promotion of student mobility' in the English programme should be addressed, and if so how? Each of these questions will be addressed in turn in 6.1.

The main research question posed by this study (1.3) was the following: How are English-language support courses conceptualised in the local trinational context? This question was approached by answering the following sub-questions:

(i) What implications do policies at the macro, meso and micro levels have for the conceptualisation of English-language teaching curricula?

(ii) How do notions of best practice in English-language teaching influence this conceptualisation?

(iii) What evidence can be found for the agency of teachers in the implementation of the curriculum?

For the sake of convenience, the research questions posed in Chapter 1 will be repeated in the sub-titles.

6.1 Conclusions about Macro, Meso and Micro Language Policy

Sub-question (i)**:** What implications do policies at the macro, meso and micro levels have for the conceptualisation of English language teaching curricula?

It was shown in 2.2.4 that macro-level policy was characterised in a vertical sense as follows:

- a concern for promoting multilingualism, particularly in the sense that two foreign languages should be learnt in addition to the mother tongue (2.2.4.1);
- support for a general framework of language competence (CEFR), specifically as a method of assessing foreign language learning (2.2.4.2);

- recognition of the importance of critical thinking in education as a factor linked to language learning, important for promoting lifelong learning and also innovation (2.2.4.3);
- conceptualisation of (foreign) language competence as a factor favouring mobility and employability (2.2.4.4).

However, at least where EU countries are concerned (France and Germany, for the purposes of this study), the study noted in 2.3.4 that the responsibility for implementing recommendations made at the macro level officially devolves to the member states at the meso level. This leaves room for interpretation, and even for resistance, at the meso level in France and Germany. An example of this, I would suggest, is the *Loi Toubon* in France, which was discussed in 2.4.3, and whose purpose is generally to defend the French language as a basic component of French identity. The law gives regional languages limited recognition but they clearly do not enjoy the same status as French (*Loi Toubon*, 2013). On the other hand, 2.4.2 suggested that Germany does not appear to have a consistent language policy, as it is a far less centralized state than France, with the individual German states enjoying considerable autonomy (Ash, 2006). Erling and Hilgendorf (2006: 268) state that the de facto situation is that 77% of German pupils are learning English, compared with only 15% for French students, though this did not seem to be a direct result of any central planning. In both France and Germany, therefore, it appears that the macro-level (EU) goal of multilingualism has not been implemented. Switzerland, on the other hand, while not a EU state, has done far more to promote equal status (in official terms at least) for all its languages (*Sprachengesetz*, 2007), as was discussed in 2.4.1.

Vertical macro-level policy should in theory be implemented at the meso level (2.3.4). However, meso-level policy does not share the priorities of EU language policy, and is not consistent from country to country, at least where multilingualism is concerned. I have argued in 2.5 that the inconclusive picture presented by higher-level policy makes micro-level interpretation necessary. I have argued that this brings into play the element of teacher agency, which is further discussed in 6.1.3 below.

The lack of continuity at the macro and meso levels with regards to multilingualism does not mean, however, that vertical policy makes no coherent statements. As represented by Figure 5.1 in 5.1.5, a common theme appearing in policy at the macro, meso and micro levels is a concern with preparing students for employment. This is supported by the horizontal influence of CLT, which as discussed in 2.3.2 attempts to focus on students' real-life needs. To allow for the possibility that the local English curriculum was influenced by higher-level policy, the analysis in 5.2.6 considered all the elements of macro-level policy discussed in Chapter 2 as possible influences. The results of the analysis were discussed in 5.3. Although it cannot feasibly be denied that the programme as a whole promotes multilingualism, it appeared from the analysis that English classes mostly pursued an 'English-only' policy (Auerbach, 1993). This issue is further pursued in 6.2 below.

6.1.1.1 Student Mobility

The very low result for codes referring to the promotion of student mobility, and promotion of plurilingualism, need to be discussed. In the case of student mobility, it could be argued that in the case of the TP, where students commute between three countries during their studies, there is sufficient encouragement of student mobility. One could also argue that it is the students' language skills that enable them to study trinationally, since they are generally taught in a different language in each country. These arguments appear solid, but at least in the case of plurilingualism, there may be another side to the coin, a point which will be pursued in 6.1.1.2.

As stated above, the TP requires students to commute between three countries during their studies, thus there is sufficient encouragement of student mobility. This is also suggested by the high numbers (experience suggests about an average of 40%) who leave the programme in the fourth semester to study abroad. It therefore seems possible that promotion of student mobility is taking place, although it may not be reflected by the data collected in this study. There was, however, one instance in the sample where a code related to promotion of student mobility was assigned. This was when a teacher invited a student from a higher semester to talk about his experiences during an exchange semester at a university in another country.

In another class whose curriculum was not included in this sample, I encouraged students to compare university rankings provided by the *Financial Times* newspaper (Financial Times, 2012). The class considered the basis on which the ranking was carried out (e.g. graduate salaries, number of staff with doctorates, number of female staff, and so on), noting that the ranking was in terms of graduate performance on completion of a Master's degree. We then compared this list to the trinational programmes list of partner universities, very few of whom appeared in the ranking. I invited the class to consider alternative methods of ranking, such as quality of teaching. Unfortunately, the exercise was not entirely successful, as some of the class appeared to conclude that they should avoid the partner institutions on the basis that they were 'second rate'. I have since tended to avoid the topic of rankings, and found it interesting that another teacher interviewed in the member check preferred the method of inviting students to share their experiences. However, research by Crawford Camiciottoli (2010) provides some interesting ideas for possible activities that might promote mobility. In order to prepare Italian Erasmus students for business lectures in English abroad, Crawford Camiciottoli (2010) did a corpus analysis of six lectures by native speakers dealing with SMEs (small and medium enterprises) to identify salient features. Crawford Camiciottoli found that understanding lectures required developing awareness in a number of areas, including features of universities in other countries, discourse markers, core business vocabulary, and understanding the difference between written and spoken English.

Nevertheless, the issue of ranking, and the implication that universities, and countries, are competing with each other for exchange students is a reality that cannot be ignored in this study, whether one deals with university rankings in class or not. The role of English in this development was considered in Chapter 2 of this study: the critical consensus is that, post-Bologna, the number of English-medium degree programmes has increased (Coleman, 2006; Phillipson, 2006; Studer et al, 2009; Schomburg and Teichler, 2011). In any competition, there are winners and losers, and a recent OECD report (OECD, 2012: 24 - 25) indicates that student mobility between countries has been uneven. As noted in Chapter 2, three English-speaking OECD countries (UK, Australia, UK) attracted at least 30% of the 4.1 million visiting students in 2010, though this is slightly down from the figure of 40% in 2000.

Where visiting students are concerned, my institution, for example, faces the challenge that while many Swiss students depart to study abroad, the number coming to Switzerland is far lower. The reason for this is not clear, although it is suspected that it has something to do with the high cost of living and accommodation in Switzerland. From a general perspective, however, the experience of the TP programme perhaps provides an example of how, through co-operation, universities can on the one hand control the flux of domestic and international students to balance out the dominance of universities in English-speaking countries discussed earlier in this study.

6.1.1.2 Multilingualism

In general, it seems safe to say that there is a need for lawmakers in the participating EU countries to implement the EU's macro policy on multilingualism. In this respect, it is to the credit of the three institutions participating in the programme that institutional policy promotes a vigorous trilingual Bachelor's degree, in which students can even elect to study a fourth language.

Spolsky (2004:4) maintains that plurilingualism refers to language skills of an individual while multilingualism refers to a society where several languages are spoken. I have not distinguished between the two consistently, since in my view a group of plurilingual individuals necessarily creates a multilingual society, making the distinction too fine to be of much use. The main point is that plurilingualism or multilingualism can in basic terms be equated with the EU's goal that the 'mother tongue plus two' (other languages) should be learnt. Even though more language support in the TP is offered in English than French and German (see chapter 3), the programme still requires students to study in three languages, and in general the language of instruction is French in France, German in Germany, and English in Switzerland. This trilingualism is a feature of which most staff are proud; nevertheless, in what was probably the most puzzling finding of this study, the promotion of plurilingualism seemed to receive little or no attention in the curricula. A forthright participant of the member check actually dismissed this finding as 'nonsense', seeing as the very trinational and trilingual nature of the TP as more than sufficient evidence of the promotion of plurilingualism.

In 6.1.1 above I suggested that there may be a reason for the lack of support for plurilingualism in the English syllabus, in that English teachers may have a vested interest in keeping the focus firmly on English. This is particularly the case if they do not have the competence, for example, to discuss false friends in German and French, seeing as knowledge of false friends normally requires a reasonable command of both those languages. For a class to be plurilingual, I would suggest, the teacher has to be multilingual. As pointed out in 5.3.4, Auerbach argues that the English-only policy is a deeply entrenched ideology. Jessner notes (2008: 3) multilingualism is not used as a resource when multilingual learners learn languages. Perhaps an explanation for this phenomenon is that to encourage multilingual activities makes it more difficult for English teachers to maintain control, especially if they are not multilingual themselves. For my own part, I should candidly admit that despite many years of lessons, my German is still much better than my French, probably because I live in the German-speaking part of Switzerland.

Nevertheless, I should qualify my account of teacher control above in two significant ways. I would agree with Auerbach (1993) that it is common practice in the local context to urge students to speak English in English-language classes. One should firstly not forget that TP English lessons essentially take place in a trinational environment in which English is not generally spoken, and the established wisdom is that students 'need all the practice they can get' in speaking the language. Student exposure to the language is therefore maximized, and my experience in the TP indicates that this is not a practice to which students normally object. Secondly, the English-only policy in the TP cannot be wholly attributed to perceived limitations of the English team, some of whom speak English, German and French fluently. One participant in the member check mentioned that she regularly dealt with the subject of false friends and cognates, but had not overtly included this in the curriculum. The comments made by colleagues during the member check suggest that the findings regarding plurilingualism in this study need to be approached with caution, since teacher talk, which might have included references to German and French, was not included in the data.

This study, carried out in a Swiss context, is to be submitted at a South African university. Although it was not the focus of this study to consider what lessons could be learned from the trinational programme for the multilingual South African context, it still merits brief discussion. One obvious observation is that the existence of such a trilingual programme requires a student population with a reasonable level of competence in three languages, although complete mastery of the second and third languages is not expected. I would suggest that a further condition in this respect is that difference in language levels are tolerated, as is shown for instance in the existence of three English streams, and two French and German streams. The entry level for the lowest stream is supposedly CEFR B2, although in practice not all have attained this level. In that case, the programme is fairly inclusive at the outset, but expects students to develop their language skills as required. While this inclusiveness at the outset places the onus for improving language skills squarely on the students, in practice they rarely seem to have difficulty with the language requirements of the course, with the mathematical and numerical aspects of courses like Accounting and Finance appearing to pose the biggest challenge.

6.1.1.3 Preparing Students for Employment

I noted in 3.6 that a common element at all levels was that students be prepared for employment. Mobility and multilingualism, which were discussed in 6.1.1.2 and 6.1.1.3 above, were seen as factors facilitating employability (see 3.5.2).

It is a tradition at my institution, a University of Applied Sciences, that students be prepared for employment, as described in 1.1. In 3.5.1, I argued that this probably requires a pragmatic, needs-based syllabus. Pennycook (1997) and Benesch (2001) have misgivings about pragmatism, as it may run the risk of sustaining an unjust status quo. Nevertheless, I would argue that such misgivings are not entirely applicable in the local context. As I noted above in respect of language-related content, it is rare for local English syllabi to entirely leave 'safe ground', and in the local context, business-related topics in general constitute such safe ground. My argument in this case is not that the status quo is unjust, as Pennycook and Benesch might suggest, but that the current state of the English syllabus neglects important issues such as promotion of plurilingualism and critical thinking, not to mention EAP.

In the local context, a pragmatic approach appears to have its advantages. In the local (trinational) tradition of vocational education, pragmatism seems to offer students promising career perspectives, and a recent report by a German newspaper (Die Welt, 2015) suggests that a UAS degree in Switzerland is equivalent to a university education in terms of career and earning potential. This claim is supported by a recent survey conducted in Switzerland. In 2011, a survey was conducted with 7600 respondents who had graduated from a Swiss UAS (FH Schweiz, 2011). 83% reported (2011: 15) that they were satisfied with their professional situation, and that their Bachelor's degree had prepared them well for working life (2011: 13). For Master's graduates, 90% felt that they had received a good or very good professional training (2011: 13).

The pragmatic approach favoured at UASs therefore seems to bring concrete benefits for its students. In simple terms, it appears that pragmatism is here to stay. However, I would argue in favour of a critical pragmatism as recommended by Allison (1996), who points out that a practical focus on EAP, for example, does not preclude a consciousness of power relations, or in itself indicate a passive acceptance of the status quo. In fact, I would argue that a critical approach that does not consider practical issues runs the danger of misunderstanding the status quo, and therefore lacks the ability to investigate it with any authority. The ability to reflect on the status quo critically would in my view allow students to become more than the 'shiny products' designed for other people's needs (Pinar, 2012). An example of what form a critical reflection on the status quo might take is provided in 6.1.2.

Accepting a pragmatic approach does not mean that it is easy to define exactly what needs such an approach should cater for, however. A survey of the career development of TP students after graduation was carried out in respect of 107 TP graduates in 2011 (Wombacher, 2012). Of 107 students who graduated between 2000 and 2006, 82 (or just fewer than 80%) entered employment. The survey results, in terms of field of employment, are summarised in Figure 6.1.

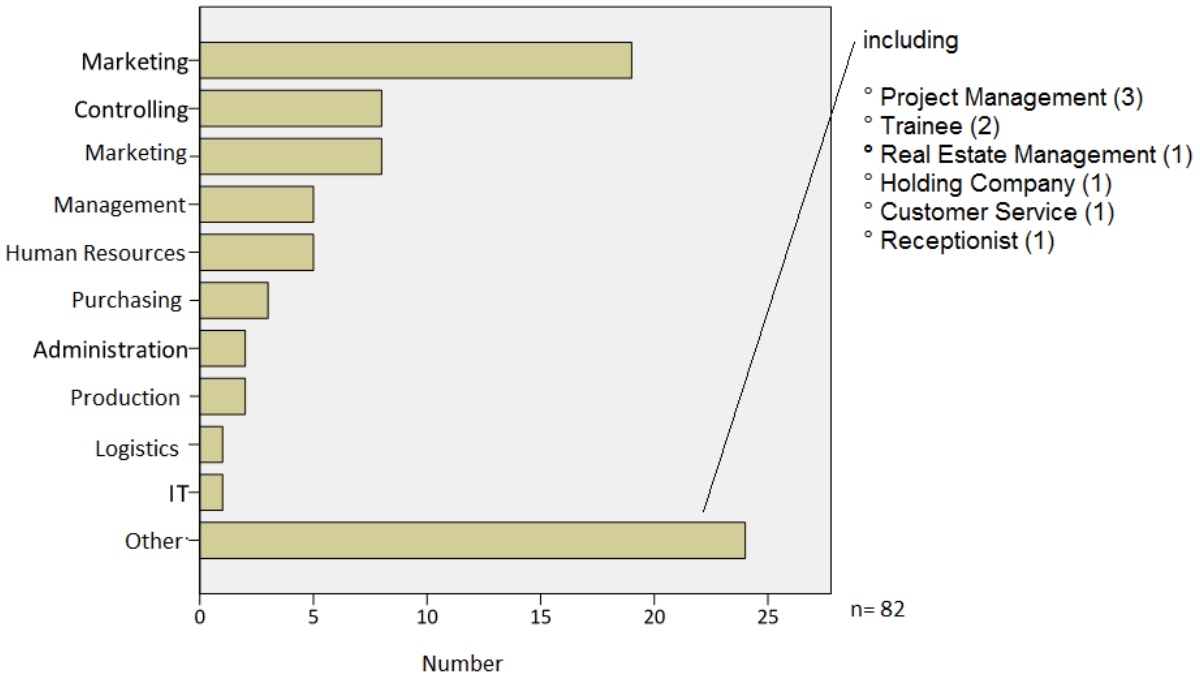


Figure 6.1 Fields of Employment, TP Graduate Years 2000-2006

Figure 6.1 suggests that it is difficult for the English department to anticipate the business fields in which students will be employed. Of 107 respondents, 82 had entered employment after their Bachelor's degree, with their employment being in eleven different fields; 16 had chosen to study further. The 2011 *FH Schweiz* survey reveals (2011: 11) that former students of Business Administration entered five main fields: Financial and Insurance Services (28%), Industry and Production (12%), Management Consulting and Trusteeship (11%), Communication and Media (6%) and Information Technology (5%). It seems safe to say that graduates of Business Administration work in a wide variety of professional capacities.

This variety of occupations explains to some extent the fact that the work-related content in the curriculum mainly focuses on generic skills. A quick review of the Preparation for Work code reveals the following content:

- Presentation skills
- Writing CVs and Covering Letters
- Acting as candidates in job interviews

- Correspondence: e.g. Letters, Reports, Proposals
- Case Studies: e.g. Team Building, Management Skills
- Current Business Themes e.g. Peak Oil and Sustainability
- Negotiating
- Writing Graph Descriptions

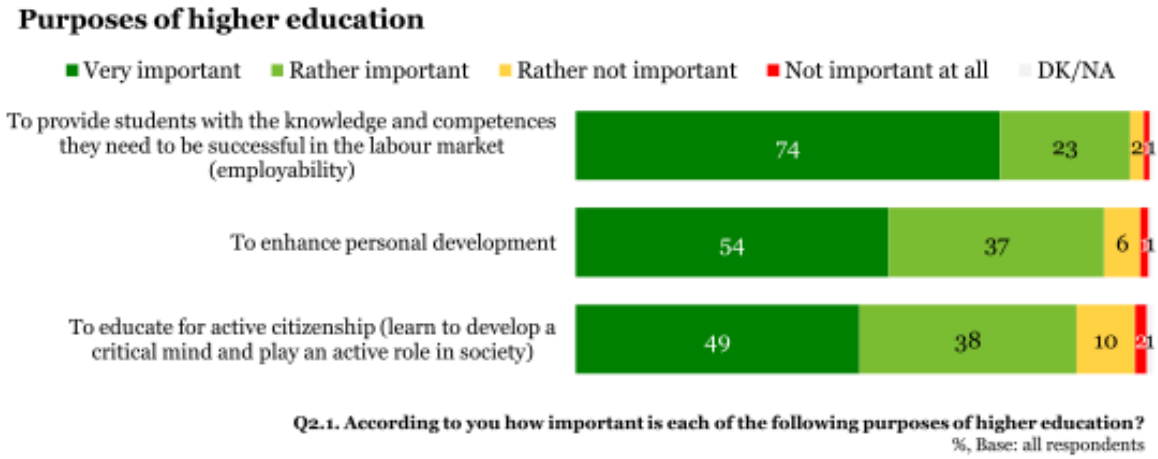
It is noticeable that skills (e.g. presentation, negotiation) and genres (e.g. CVs) likely to be useful over a wide variety of professional contexts are included. This said, the nature of workplace demands in specific contexts has been the subject of some interesting research. Crosling and Ward (2002) surveyed the employers of business graduates and drew conclusions about the nature of speaking skills required at the workplace, in particular that students need to be prepared for conversational language use, as this is more frequent than the formal type of English required in presentations. Smythe and Nikolai (2002) interviewed undergraduate and graduate accountants, as well as professional accountants to develop a thematic overview of oral communication concerns. In order to deal with growing numbers of international postgraduate students entering Newcastle Business School, Sloane and Porter (2009) emphasise the need for collaboration between EAP instructors and business subject specialists, and on the basis of interviews with stakeholders, propose a model to achieve this. Even within the limits of this short discussion of workplace needs, some impression is given of their variety.

Pinar (2012), although he accepts the inevitability of market-related education goals, argues that the syllabus is incomplete if it considers only economic goals. The extent of work-related content in the English syllabus is therefore cause for concern, if it is not accompanied by a critical perspective. This argument is supported by a survey sponsored by the European Union (Flash Eurobarometer, 2009:11), in which around 15,000 randomly selected HE students in 31 European countries were interviewed in respect of their views on the purpose of higher education. Figure 6.2 represents some findings in respect of the role of higher education.

What makes the responses to the questions posed in Figure 6.2 interesting is that students felt (in terms of the sum of responses 'Very important' and 'Rather important') that personal development and developing a critical mind were almost as important as

preparation for the labour market. A challenge facing the English department in future is accepting that pragmatism should be accompanied by a critical perspective. I do not suggest abandoning this respected tradition, but supplementing it with a critical perspective.

Figure 6.2 European Student Views on the Purpose of Higher Education, 2009



6.1.2 Notions of best practice in English language teaching, and their influence on the English syllabus

This section will address research question (ii): how do notions of best practice in English-language teaching influence this conceptualisation?

6.1.2.1 Finding the balance between EGAP and ESAP

In general, if one accepts that preparation for academic study in English is a logical requirement for a degree programme in which two semesters are taught entirely in English, the amount of EAP appearing in the curriculum seems inadequate. The relatively few references to EAP that were made mentioned general academic skills (EGAP), and did not attempt a more specific application of EAP to an academic business context (ESAP) (Hyland, 2006). A review of the EAP codes shows that the following areas were covered:

- Academic writing (grammatical issues, paragraph structure)
- Reporting and discussing results
- Planning and writing a 1500-word assignment
- Making in-text citations and compiling annotated bibliographies
- Writing abstracts and management summaries
- Academic Reading Skills (dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary, understanding logical structure)

This content suggests that where EAP appeared in the English curriculum, it tended towards an EGAP orientation. Arguing for EGAP, Spack (1988) argues that language teachers do not have the necessary background to teach subject-specific conventions. Basturkmen (2006: 15) distinguishes between EGAP and ESAP in different terms:

> Narrow-angled courses are devised for learners with very similar needs and are highly specialized. Wide-angled ESP courses are devised for learners with needs that are only somewhat similar and less specialized.

Judging the variety of needs business students might have in professional life (see the discussion in 6.1.2), it would seem that the English syllabus in the context of Business Administration is a 'wide-angle' course (a term coined by Widdowson, 1983). Van der Slik and Weideman (2007: 126) refer to academic literacy as '…the ability by students to use language at the appropriate and desired level within the academic community, or their level of competence in academic discourse and its conventions.' They propose a generalised test to assess academic literacy, and this test is intended for the general student population. However, students of Business Administration have more specific interests, and needs, than the general population. Hyland (2006) describes how understandings of literacy have moved on from EAP as a set of study skills towards academic literacy. Street and Lefstein (2007) maintain that academic literacies are social practices and, focusing on the issue of academic writing, claim that views of academic writings may vary between institutions, faculty and students, and are dependent on the context and the field of study. Indeed, this is a common argument in literacy-related research (e.g. Lea and Street, 1998; Lea, 2004; Barton, 2006). According to this view, there is therefore no version of EAP that is universally

suitable. Indeed, there are a number of sub-disciplines within Business Administration (Marketing, Management, Human Resources and so on), each with its own tradition and practices.

Given the existence of these more or less clearly demarcated sub-disciplines, it is conceivable that English teachers might use materials from some or all of them. Hyland (2002: 388) argues that a good deal of time has passed since Spack's (1988) defence of EGAP, and that

> …we are now in a better position to describe the literacy cultures of different academic majors more precisely and with more confidence. This knowledge is related, moreover, to our professional responsibility to use these descriptions of target forms and tasks to best assist our students.

Local experience suggests, however, that resistance may be encountered from administrators who are wary of duplication of content between language and content modules. Due to the fact that TP students are taught by different lecturers in three different countries, some repetition of content can occur, and this has strengthened the administration's unofficial view that inclusion of 'content' in language modules is a risky exercise. In Archer's (1995) terms, this resistance could be seen as an ideational influence (CEPs); it is possibly strengthened by a structural influence (SEP), in the sense that materials traditionally used by English teachers are more language- than content-oriented. I do not wish to suggest that the inclusion of content in language modules is an impossible notion, but conceptualising the situation in this way gives one an idea of a situational logic that works against it. Nevertheless, the inclusion of content has already been achieved to a degree (5.2.6). It proved fairly straightforward to ascertain that no other teacher broached the topic of writing CVs (Curricula Vitae) and application letters, which was then addressed in the English syllabus. This supplemented existing courses dealing with HRM (Human Resources Management).

6.1.2.2 Towards a more Critical Approach: Supplementing CLT

As suggested in 5.3.1, in agreement with Wallace (2002) and other critics of CLT, I regard the practice of preparation for employment as problematic if it lacks a critical perspective. The analysis in Chapter 5 revealed a relative lack of materials designed to promote the development of a critical perspective. I would suggest that the other most common codes (GV Focus, Non-specialized Materials, and External Examination Formats) revealed in the analysis do little to improve the situation. In 5.2.4.1 to 5.2.4.10 the necessary conditions for the allocations of these codes were laid out, and none of them carry an overtly critical element.

CLT traditionally focuses on student needs (e.g. Jacobs and Farrell, 2003), yet has been criticised for lacking a critical element (e.g. Wallace, 2002). To provide an example of how a syllabus can combine elements of the pragmatic and critical, one can consider a syllabus designed by Flowerdew (2005) which attempts to meet needs similar to those of a TP English course. Flowerdew (2005: 135) notes that the course takes place in an academic setting but it is primarily concerned with 'EOP' (English for Occupational Purposes), and seeks to prepare students for future employment. To introduce a critical element, it adopted an approach whereby (2005: 135):

> …students are gently encouraged to develop a critical awareness of workplace practices in order that change might be implemented, where possible.

The syllabus proposed by Flowerdew benefits from a needs analysis in which around 450 students and 50 staff were asked which changes were necessary in an English programme (Wong and Wu, 1998).

In the B2-level English syllabi, Chapter 5 (5.2.6) suggested that there appeared to be little or critical content. The possibility that a class' level will influence what is taught, or not taught, comes as a surprise to them (and even to myself as an insider) and indicates an urgent need for discussion with the team. Barton's (1994:52) dictum that the hidden power relations in literacy practices need to be made visible comes to mind: the fact that C1 and C2 classes deal with a wider range of topics over six

semesters was hitherto unknown. In fact, this state of events may have been caused by the best of intentions: local experience suggests that the B2 class is traditionally viewed as being less proficient in English compared to the higher levels, and therefore receive more language support. However, Hyland (2002: 388) notes that 'The … argument, that weak students need to control core forms before getting on to specific, and presumably more difficult, features of language is, quite simply, not supported by research in second language acquisition.' It is therefore conceivable that the B2 stream could, in addition to receiving language support, engage with critical-case studies as suggested in 6.2.2 below. Indeed, such case studies can also provide a basis of exploration of language-related issues.

In this discussion I have defended a variety of critical pragmatism, as do Cherryholmes (1988) and Pennycook (1997). An obvious danger of pragmatism is that it can lose its critical perspective, but I would argue that case studies such as the Nestlé case, discussed in 6.2.2 below, can provide a much-needed critical perspective. For Benesch (2001: 66), however, this would not go far enough:

> I nonetheless believe that critical EAP is accountable for having ignored and in most cases, continuing to ignore, issues of power and social justice…

Nevertheless, I would side with Allison (1997) that a critical approach can go too far in its desire to question the existing status quo. Hyland also advocates caution (2006: 34) in the practice of critical EAP, noting that

> …critical EAP runs the danger of presuming to speak for students rather than assisting them to speak for themselves. We also need to consider the real-world consequences and pay-offs for students and how critical action might actually be harnessed to both bring about change and equip learners with a challenging and inquiring attitude to their studies and fields of practice.

The responsibility of managing the rather difficult balancing act between pragmatism and critique, Hyland (2006:35) suggests, lies with teachers:

> Teachers are responsible professionals, not simply technicians applying procedures. They constantly search for ethical ways of responding to increasingly difficult political and commercial pressures….They recognise that their students often have pragmatic goals.

This seems a balanced view to take, since the context of the English course investigated here is one traditionally undertaking to prepare students for the demands of the workplace, whatever those may be. Archer (1988, 1995) would argue that these conflicting interests are part of the reality into which teachers and students enter at tertiary institutions, as a part of existing social conditions pre-ordained by earlier social actors.

6.1.3 The Role of Teacher Agency

This section deals with research question (iii): what evidence can be found for the agency of teachers in the implementation of the curriculum?

The previous chapter presented results describing the conceptualisation of the local English programme, to allow a re-interpretation if and where necessary. As noted in Chapter 5, the results suggest that curriculum content was strongly affected both by the teacher and the CEFR level involved, and that there was a relative lack of academic (EAP) and critical content in comparison with other content focusing on grammar and vocabulary learning, and preparation for employment. If curriculum content is strongly affected by the teacher who sets it, should such teacher agency be viewed in a positive or negative light? In 6.1.1, I will argue that teacher agency can be viewed both ways.

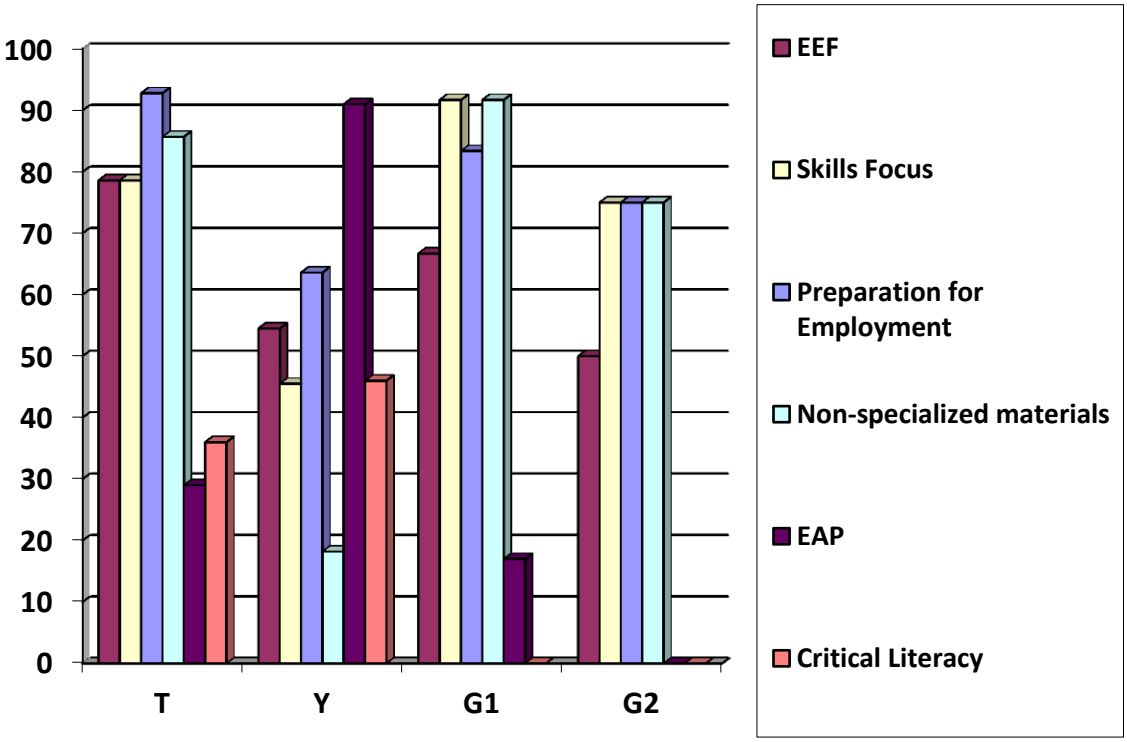
The policy review in Chapters 2 and 3 suggested that policy guidelines are general at best, sometimes incomplete (e.g. Bologna Declaration, discussed in 2.2.1). Given that there is, in addition to vagueness of European language policy, a lack of clarity in the subject literature, for example with regard to the best interpretation of EAP, this may have opened the door to a number of local (teacher) interpretations of the English syllabus. I intend to argue here that while there is a common core in the local English

syllabus, some teachers have departed from this familiar ground in significant ways, which is indicative of their agency.

A central core is suggested by data presented in Chapter 5 (5.3.1 - 5.3.4) and includes grammar and vocabulary exercises (GV Focus), work-related topics (Preparation for Employment), use of (mainly commercial) materials (Non-specialized Materials) and reference to commercial-language examinations (External Examination Formats). Where GV focus is concerned, Celce-Murcia (1991) defends grammar and vocabulary teaching as a necessary part of language teaching, basing her argument on CLT, particularly Canale and Swain (1980:13), who argued that grammatical competence is one component of communicative competence, though it was in itself an insufficient basis for communicative competence. While Celce-Murcia referred to the older work of Canale and Swain, the teaching of grammar has been defended more recently by Henderson and Hirst (2007). In a review of four Australian universities, Henderson and Hirst conclude that notions of academic literacy include traditional practices such as working on grammar and editing, although they question this unproblematic view of academic literacy, arguing that the concept 'literacy' should be replaced by 'literacies' which reflect the varying ways engage with academic discourses. The question of the extent to which the English syllabus can address specific academic discourses is further addressed in 6.1.3 below.

As suggested in Figure 5.15 (section 5.2.6), teachers T and Y included material designed to promote critical literacy, in contrast to the remainder who did not. Furthermore, teachers T and Y and group G1 included EAP, but group G2 did not; teacher Y also seemed to include more EAP content than teacher T and group G1 put together. For the sake of convenience, Figure 5.15 is reproduced as Figure 6.3 on the following page.

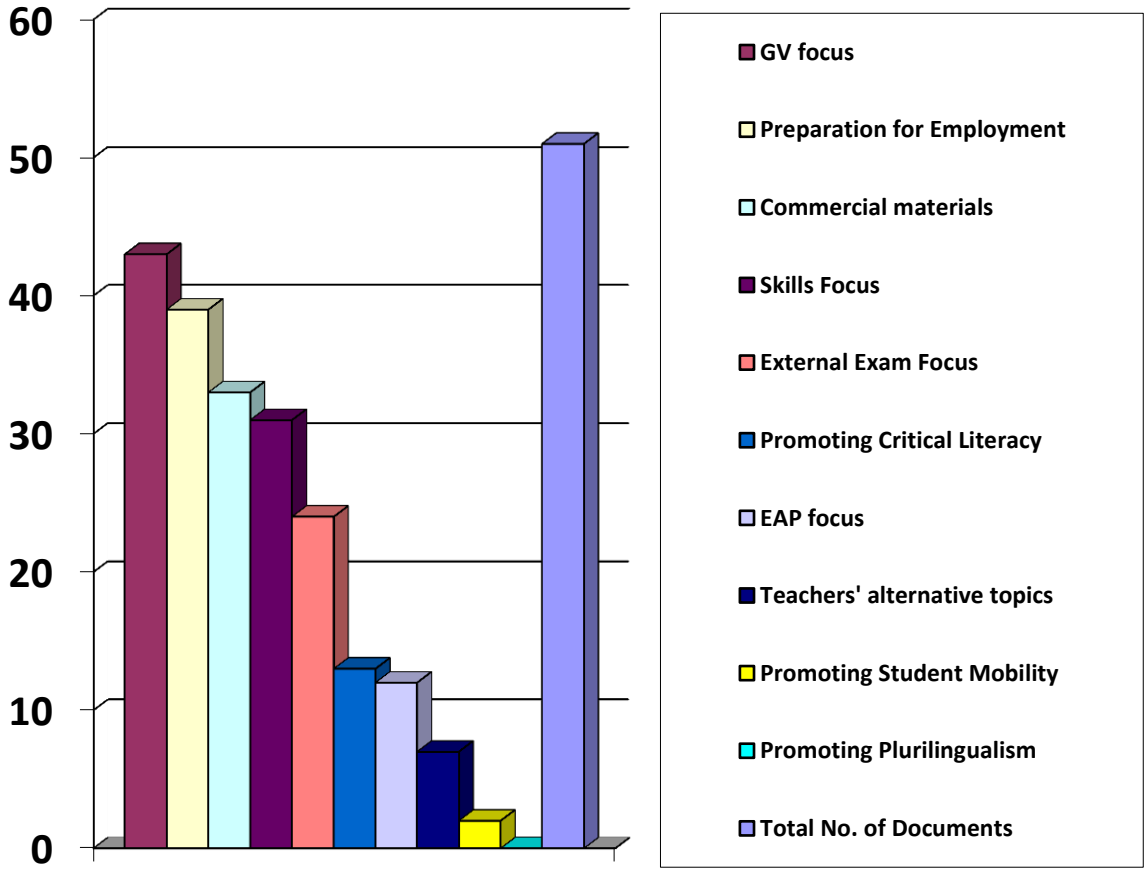
Figure 6.3 - Codes for teachers T, Y, G1 and G2 in percentages



This study has made much of the relevance of EAP for the local syllabus, and in brief, I would argue that where teacher agency led to the neglect of EAP, this was negative, as in the case of group G2. I would add that teacher agency was positive when it led to the inclusion of EAP and critical literacy, as in the case of teacher Y, T and G1, although teachers T and G1 could have done far more in this respect. Then, as stated above, there appears to be a 'common core' of practice, such as grammar and vocabulary exercises, which can be viewed as positive when viewed from the perspective mentioned by Henderson and Hirst (2007) above.

As suggested by Figure 6.4, reproduced from Figure 5.12 in 5.2.6, the curriculum is characterised by a predominance of codes that stay on 'safe ground', as suggested for example by the dominant codes GV Focus, Preparation for Employment), use of (mainly commercial) materials (Non-specialized Materials) and reference to commercial language examinations (External Examination Formats).

Figure 6.4 Total number of Codes Allocated



One explanation for the relative lack of critical and academic content in the English syllabus is that the programme traditionally includes a module known as Cross-Cultural Management and Marketing, which includes 'content' modules that are arguably adjacent to or fall into the field of Applied Linguistics, for example intercultural communication. In order to prevent overlap between these topics, it has been de facto departmental policy to focus on language rather than content as far as possible, although this is not set out in any document. Nevertheless, it follows that the kind of language one uses is naturally influenced by content, and local experience suggests that this language-only policy has been altered to include content-related topics such as job applications and CV writing appearing in a number of curricula in this sample. The appearance of the code 'Teacher's Alternative Topics' in the second round of coding (5.2.6) also suggests that teachers departed from the vocabulary and grammar tradition when it suited them. This might to some degree be an explanation for why some teachers chose to leave 'safe ground' at some points.

To offer an alternative explanation, Archer's concept of agency can add a supplementary critical dimension to this discussion. Archer argues (1995: 253) as follows:

> We are all born into a structural and cultural context which, far from being of our making, is the unintended resultant of past interactions among the long dead. Simultaneously we acquire vested interests in maintenance or change according to the privileged or under-privileged positions we occupy and whether the situations we confront are sources of rewarding or penalizing experiences [….] Far from vested interests being compelling, this view of agency in no way precludes their sacrifice for altruistic reasons.

The relevance of Archer's comments here may require some explanation. In the local context, I would suggest that teachers who stick to tried and tested syllabus content such as grammar and vocabulary, work-related topics and benchmarking by reference to commercial language examinations are taking a well-trodden route that maintains the status quo. 5.2.6 showed that most of the department does this to some extent, and I myself have never constructed a syllabus which neglected a language focus entirely. However, I wish to argue that the promotion of 'alternative' practices such as critical literacy, and even of plurilingualism, to my mind requires a degree of altruism, as noted above by Archer. Teachers wishing to introduce alternative content firstly have to invest a considerable amount of time producing materials themselves, and secondly leaving 'safe ground' involves a certain amount of risk, since the teacher supplementary content that is being introduced may be less familiar; both students and staff have to become comfortable with content that is new in the context of an English class. Such content could for example be ESAP-related, where a teacher attempts to link language structures closely to content that he or she is not entirely expert in. Similarly, for a teacher to introduce a consideration of plurilingualism, and hence to share the focus on English with other languages, removes the discussion from the teachers' presumed area of expertise (English) to the students' (various) mother tongues, in which the English teacher is less expert. Auerbach (1993:10) refers to the 'English Only' movement in ESL classrooms, maintaining that this monolingual approach needs to be reconsidered. The supposed neglect of critical literacy and plurilingualism will be discussed further below, but I would argue that that

Archer's concept of altruism is apt for describing practices where teachers explore the possibilities of supplementary content (in which they are not necessarily well versed), perhaps because they believe it will benefit their students.

I would argue that another way in which teachers can stay on 'safe ground' is by following the structure set out in commercial textbooks, which appeared in the analysis as 'non-specialized materials'. This could be seen to reflect the influence of Archers' (1995) structural emergent properties, where physically available resources influence reality. The department's choice to fall back on traditional materials such as course books, which I categorized as 'non-specialized' since they were commercial publications developed for a general public (and not the local context), in my view represents a practice that could be reconsidered, at the very least because it seems to neglect EAP. When asked how he had introduced EAP into his classes, teacher Y responded that he produced his own materials in most cases. Steinhart, (2006: 260) argues in favour of self-produced materials:

> The challenge for faculty of language courses is to have access to a core of content materials from which the relevant language structures and vocabulary can be derived …. Thus, at my own institution, professors have begun to create their own course materials, rather than rely on a textbook, which enables them to tailor materials to their own student population and to change these materials in subsequent years as content becomes dated.

However, I would argue that the example of teacher Y not only reflects his preference to use his own materials, but the fact that he takes the trouble to do so is an example of altruism as defined by Archer. This also suggests that positive agency is facilitated by self-produced materials, as is suggested by Figure 6.1 above.

6.2 Recommendations

One obvious application of the findings of this study in the local context would be to compare differing notions of curricula as represented by the English syllabi, and attempt to come to some broad notions of best practice. Another issue raised by this study is to why EGAP, which apparently has not found any defenders since Spack

(1988), is not an acceptable approach in a discipline such as Business Administration, which has plural career trajectories with possibly distinct needs, as will be discussed in the following section.

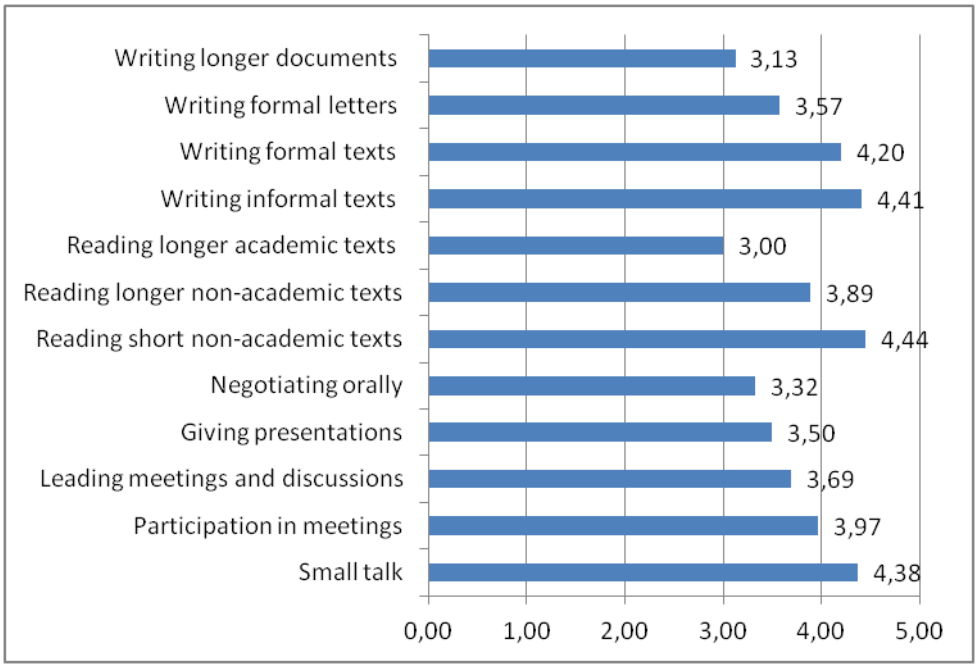
The recommendations discussed below recap some of the issues mentioned earlier, but they are also meant to discuss in more practical detail small ways in which the syllabus might be altered.

6.2.1 Assessment of Student Needs at Work

As stated in Chapter 1, (1.3), this study did not undertake to assess student needs. However, seeing as this study might inform a future curriculum evaluation, it may be of interest to refer to an unpublished small-scale survey carried out by a student under my supervision (Lipp, 2012). On the basis of their work experience in the practical component of the TP course, 43 TP students responded to the question 'How high is your current need for the following skills in English?' in respect of twelve items which they rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from low (0) to high (5). The results are summarised in Figure 6.4.

Although not all of the response items are entirely clear (e.g. 'Writing longer documents'), Figure 6.4 suggests that there are certain skills such as 'Leading meetings and discussions' and 'Participation in Meetings' that are neglected by the TP English syllabus. The supposed neglect of the topic of meetings in the curriculum is at first glance difficult to understand, considering its strongly work-related focus. However, I suspect that a reason for this is the difficulty of assessing the skills required to operate effectively at a meeting. In order to carry out this assessment, one has to stage a meeting with several participants, all of whose performance has to be evaluated. The difficulty of evaluating the speaking competence of several people in conversation is considerable. However, this is not the only reason why I personally would hesitate to include training for meetings in the curriculum without very careful consideration.

Figure 6.4 Student perceptions about current English needs at work



Although there is nothing wrong with such training in itself, the inclusion of further work-related content would not improve what I see as the main problem besetting the syllabus, that of the overly dominant concern with preparation for employment. As Pinar (2012: 38) argues, a focus on economically-related goals alone runs the risk of fostering a 'narrow' intelligence, one that is purely concerned with solving pre-existing problems. It should not be the goal of the English syllabus to produce well-trained students who, as a result of their needs-related education, are incapable of original thought. The challenge, as I will argue in the following section, is therefore to integrate a critical approach into work-related content, thereby achieving a form of critical pragmatism.

6.2.2 Promoting Critical Literacy

Where critical thinking is concerned, it seems that all three classes have to make do with very few activities in this regard. As noted in 2.4, Wallace (2002) lays some of the blame for this on CLT, which confines itself to everyday situations and fails to provide students with a language of critique to properly evaluate their experiences. Nevertheless, preparation for employment does not mean that one is obliged to regard

all business practices of successful corporations uncritically. The recent 'credit crunch' in the financial markets is one instance where one can easily take a critical approach. It is a necessary and important exercise, I would argue, to look at where capitalism has gone wrong in the past, with a view to fostering and improving sustainable business practices. There are examples (though admittedly, few of these can found in commercial textbooks) of case studies which are critical of existing business practices.

To cite one example, it has been reported (Reuters, 2012) that Nestlé has been criticised for extracting groundwater in Pakistan in order to sell it in bottles, thereby reducing the drinking water of local communities. This report is available online and provides an alternative, critical perspective to textbooks, which normally take an uncritical view of corporate practices. To be fair, one could also include press releases of Nestlé's responses to these allegations. In this way, one can provide students with the reality of one company's public relations as a kind of praxis, while also encouraging them to weigh up arguments made by the company and its critics. The more traditional groups G1 and G2 for the most part structured their lessons around commercially available course books e.g. *Market Leader.* Such books seem to provide teachers with ready-made English courses, but this comes at a price: the appropriateness of which is not beyond doubt because, firstly, it features little or no EAP elements and, secondly, it presents business practices of the companies it features as the norm, thus side-stepping the possibility of critical reflection.

In 2.5 I referred to the question of whether neo-liberal influences have unduly affected our students' learning experience by focusing only on what they 'need' to know, and depriving them of a critical perspective, which might lead to students becoming mere consumers of education, and not active participants in it. Lynch (2006: 1) refers to 'the trend of neo-liberalisation' in which education serves the needs of the market at the expense of its social and developmental duties. I would argue that critical case studies such as the one described above go some way to ensuring that students are not merely prepared for the needs of the market, but can also question business practices where appropriate.

Reading (or, where resources permit, listening to) critical case studies might also provide a resource for vocabulary development. Nevertheless, as attractive as the

case studies may be, they are 'diamonds in the rough' and vocabulary lists, and the grammatical issues arising from them, still have to be developed. A suggestion made by teacher Y, who normally uses his own materials, is that students should generate their own vocabulary lists; these lists can then be compared in group work after the teacher has considered each student's list and checked the correctness of the student's definitions. One can only applaud teacher Y's commitment or altruism, yet I suspect for the majority of the department, this would be a daunting task due to its potentially time-consuming nature. A further difficulty would be identifying lexis that can be tested in the traditional grammar and vocabulary test that most of the department gives each semester. A workable alternative, which could be discussed at the departmental level, is that students cross-check the correctness of their definitions in groups, and the list of lexis for testing selected by the teacher on the basis of questions drawn up in class. Clearly, such a practice involves compromises, and the very notion of GV tests may appear extremely old-fashioned, yet continue to survive, not the least due to student expectations. Archer (1995) might refer to this phenomenon as the influence of a CEP, a cultural emergent property of an ideational nature, which forms part of the scene set for teachers (and students).

Some teachers introduced what I gave the broad and neutral title of 'alternative topics' in their curricula. It seems that there can be little objection to such material, if it serves a purpose such as encouraging students to critically reflect on their own experiences, and indeed experience suggests that students do not object to an occasional change of focus. On the other hand, it can be maintained that a number of other teachers took a 'dogmatic' approach and stayed with the safe terrain of work-related topics, grammar and vocabulary, and so on. As Archer (1988) emphasises, teachers would first need to recognise the existence of their dogmatic approach before they could do anything about changing it. She explains as follows (1988: xxii):

> In brief, contradictions mould problem-ridden situations for actors which they must confront *if and when* they realize, or are made to acknowledge, that the proposition(s) they endorse is enmeshed in some inconsistency. What they do next is not determined: they have the options of irrational dogmatism or of abandoning the theory or belief altogether, *but* if they want to go on non-

> dogmatically then their only recourse is to repair the inconsistency, that is, the force of the situational logic. [original emphasis]

The key step, in Archer's (1988) terms, is the achievement of consciousness of one's stance with regards to the prevailing dogma, as coherent or incoherent as it may be. The challenge facing the local English department, in that case, is reaching agreement on a joint position firstly in respect of what constitutes dogma (standard practice) and secondly whether we as a group are prepared to adapt our approach. If such agreement is reached, any changes we propose would have to be negotiated with stakeholders concerned, specifically the school management and the students.

The pursuit of a dogmatic approach becomes questionable if it appears entirely to preclude the presence of other more critical or academic content in the curriculum, as seems to be the case for the B2 classes included in the sample. Naturally, one cannot make sweeping generalisations on the basis of a limited sample of curricula, but one hopes that B2 classes in future can be offered a more balanced curriculum, in other words, one that includes not only a focus on work-related issues, but also takes a critically pragmatic approach and includes an EAP element.

6.2.3 CLIL

In the context of foreign-language learning, the European Commission endorses a particular methodology of language learning, CLIL (European Commission, 2012: 2, original emphasis):

> Member should make teaching and learning foreign languages significantly more effective by action along the following lines:
> *Quantity, more hours* need to be invested into the teaching and learning of languages…
> *Quality*: teaching should be improved with the help of innovative methods, including Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) where non-language subjects are taught through the medium of a foreign language, initial and in-service training of language teachers…

It is rare to find references to a particular pedagogy at such a high policy-making level, although it is not made clear why or how this particular pedagogy should increase the quality of teaching and learning. This endorsement led to research (Järvinen, 2009:6), which describes CLIL as being equally as relevant to tertiary level as it is to lower levels, where 'use of a foreign language in teaching may be taken “as granted” especially at university level, where content is primary and language is seen as a vehicle.' Furthermore, Fortanet-Gomez (2013) advocates an approach that combines multilingualism in higher education with CLIL.

Ruiz de Zarobe (2013: 232) states that the European Commission endorses the use of CLIL, but notes that the delegation of its implementation to the individual EU states results in varieties of CLIL arising in various countries: Poland, the UK, Sweden and Spain all have their own particular brands, she argues. This point is also made by Cenoz et al, who argue (2014: 243) that:

> Clarification is critical if CLIL is to evolve and improve systematically and if CLIL educators are to benefit from the experiences and knowledge acquired in other educational settings.

I suggested in Chapter 3 that the teaching of content in a foreign language would meet resistance in the local context due to institutional norm of separating 'language' and 'content', and noted that little co-operation exists between language and content teachers in this respect. However, the assumption that language can be cleanly separated from content has been questioned by the emergence of more content-related topics e.g. CV writing in the English curriculum.

This does not however amount to an indication that CLIL is or will become a standard pedagogy in the programme; I would argue it is precisely the reduced focus on language that might threaten the inclusive nature of the programme, which accepts students with widely varying levels of language skills. At present, TP students receive six full semesters of language support in English; they might be at risk if they were to receive less language tuition, operating on the assumption that a CLIL-influenced pedagogy would integrate language in tuition and content, which would probably reduce the amount of language input. Cenoz et al refer to research suggesting that it

is difficult in reality to control the ratio of content and language in a CLIL class. Whereas some believe that content and language should receive equal treatment, others were of the opinion that even a module that had only a 10% content component qualified as a CLIL module. In that case, one could easily argue that some of the English modules with a content component are in effect CLIL modules, and therefore I for one support Cenoz et al's call for clarification.

CLIL potentially requires co-operation between language and content teachers, so that the former can be trained in the discipline which is 'new' to him or her, which also requires content and language teachers who firstly have the time and secondly are willing to cross establish established departmental borders. My impression is that further research is required, for instance into an approach to CLIL that might fit the local situation, to evaluate whether a CLIL-influenced curriculum would be an improvement on the current conceptualisation of language support.

6.2.4 Further Application of Critical Realism

This study has attempted to make some use of Archer's (1995) ideas. However, the potential of her arguments is far from exhausted. Priestly (2011) sees critical realism as a potent tool for use in curriculum evaluation. This study has not attempted an evaluation of the TP English curriculum, but the point is that critical realism could also inform an evaluation (not only an attempt to explain the current state of the curriculum, which has been the major concern of this study). Priestly (2011: 233) proposes that an understanding of the basic tenets of critical realism can foster the following outcomes in curriculum development:

- through validation of teacher agency: 'enhanced capacity of teachers to teach';
- through structural emergence: 'the designation of new systems in schools to facilitate the new policy';
- through cultural emergence: 'the refinement of policy itself as a result of professional engagement'

These factors can work together, and I propose that by understanding their interplay, one can derive a more nuanced idea of factors working for/against the given status quo in a department. Archer (1988) reminds us that even a supposedly stable curriculum concept can contain seeds of conflict. She attacks (1988: 2) what she refers to as the 'Myth of Cultural Integration', attributing to anthropology the enduring notion of culture as 'strong and coherent patterning', and ventures an explanation of how the 'Myth' has endured:

> …this approach, based on the intuitive understanding of cultural configurations, entailed a crucial prejudgement, namely an insistence that coherence was there to be found, that is a mental closure against the discovery of cultural inconsistencies.

Institutional culture may in fact be less coherent than it appears, and teachers, administrators and students seeking to change the status quo need to bear this in mind. This results in a tendency towards gradual change: the status quo may be less stable than supposed, and change may be more difficult than imagined, especially if it does not consider all the influences at work. Individuals, as agents, have the power to influence the status quo, Archer (1995) argues, although this power is constrained by other forces, namely cultural and structural forces. Moreover, Archer (1995:4) identifies two misinterpretations of social change, firstly *upward conflation*, where it is mistakenly assumed that people are 'incapable of acting back to influence social structures', and secondly *downward conflation,* where individuals are clay which is 'unilaterally moulded' (1995:3) by society. Rather, the 'parts' and the 'people' influence each other. Expressed in other terms, agents, while they are an influence in themselves, are influenced by cultural and structural factors.

I would argue that this study has shown that teachers, and institutions, are not clay in the hands of policy makers, and that that the teacher agency can exert a considerable influence on curricula. I would like to end this study on a positive note by noting that while teacher agency can sometimes lead to unwanted outcomes, teachers are capable of reflecting on their practices and adapting and changing them where needed. It remains a validation of the teacher's ability, and responsibility, to draw up a

curriculum that fosters learning, and even intelligence and originality. Fostering intelligence is the ultimate challenge which Pinar (2012) poses for educators. As I noted in Chapter 1 (1.6), Pinar does not categorically reject education that is aligned with corporate goals, but emphasises that the curriculum should not be limited to that. If a future curriculum evaluation is to make use of the information presented in this study, it will hopefully have this idea as a guiding principle.

6.3 Limitations of the study and possibilities for future research

It must be conceded that the study suffered from certain limitations. One shortcoming which is difficult to avoid is that the curriculum only presents a 'snapshot' i.e. a brief and possibly incomplete picture of lesson content. A syllabus represents a plan of the content that will be covered in a lesson, but it is a static version of a dynamic interaction between teacher and students, a version that is any case drawn up in advance and can never fully capture all the content that is covered. However, I would maintain that that the curriculum documents included in the sample offer, at the very least, a reasonable overview of the syllabi drawn up in the TP's English department from 2011 to 2013, and it is difficult to conceive how a more complete picture might be achieved of curriculum taught during this period in the department.

Where the allocation of codes is concerned, the quality of the encoding is possibly more reliable in the 2011-2013 syllabi, since this group of syllabi was primarily drawn up by current members of staff, who could assess my interpretation of their syllabi in the member check. In respect of the syllabi drawn up between 2006 and 2010, some of the teachers whose syllabi were included the sample could not be easily contacted, as they have retired or left the department. Although my interpretation of the 2006-2010 syllabi was as equally assessed in the member check as the 2011-2013 syllabi, the quality of the interpretation was perhaps not as exact as for the 2011-2013 syllabi.

Apart from this, an interpretation of this kind remains a subjective undertaking and it is possible that another observer would arrive a different understanding of the curriculum. However, by mapping the encoding process onto matrices (Richards and Morse, 2007; Graneheim and Lundman, 2004), the assumptions made in the study

have hopefully been made transparent. Furthermore, my interpretation of the data arguably benefits from my insider perspective, and that of the colleagues who kindly assisted me in the member check.

A step that could be taken, but was beyond the scope of this study, would be to evaluate the curriculum and ask students (past and current) and employers for their view of the English curriculum. In class discussions, part-time (working) students sometimes remark that they mostly need English of a conversational nature for team meetings, a notion which was strengthened by Lipp's small-scale research conducted among TP students mentioned in 6.2.1 above. This links with Crosling and Ward's (2002) finding that employers required students to know language of an informal nature for work purposes, which could be issues to be pursued in the (future) evaluation of the curriculum, should the English department wish to undertake such an evaluation at a later stage.

6.4 Contributions of the Study

This study has gone some way to demonstrating that, at least in the trinational context, 'trickle-down' language policy is not a reality. In local terms, it is simply not true that policies announced at the macro level are faithfully adopted at the meso level and implemented at the micro level, although this is probably the intention of policymakers (3.5.1).

While there is a concern common to all levels that students be prepared for employment, in other respects such as the promotion of multilingualism, there is little evidence of support at the meso level of a policy that is strongly stated at the macro level (3.4). Ironically, the policy is 'revived' again at the micro level (3.5.1). However, since the TP was the only programme of more than ten in the trinational region to offer a trilingual degree programme, it was concluded that the macro-level promotion of multilingualism was not conclusively demonstrated at the micro level. Using concepts proposed by Archer (1995) I suggested that concepts at the macro level may influence micro-level agents in an ideational sense (5.3.2). This is especially true of 'horizontal' macro forces, i.e. current notions of standard pedagogical practice such as CLT.

Teacher agency was revealed to be a factor that could significantly influence the shape of the English syllabus, which supports Baldauf's argument that micro-level practices require further research. The study has illustrated that teachers can – and, in the light of the somewhat inconclusive policy landscape, must – reinterpret the English syllabus (5.3.2). These interpretations of the syllabus differed from teacher to teacher, for example in respect of the materials they prefer to use. Moreover, the level of the students influenced syllabus content, with the B2-aligned stream being presented with a noticeably different syllabus than the two C-streams (5.3.2). A course of action that recommends itself in this regard is a survey among B2 students asking their opinion of the English-language support they receive, with a view to assessing whether they feel the need for more EAP and exercises developing critical literacy. It may be that their critical literacy is quite well-developed enough in their native languages and what they really want is the 'nuts and bolts' of English; this remains to be seen. Another potential area of research could be an analysis of classroom talk. As a rule, the English staff are fluent in German and French and might provide support for multilingualism in spoken translations and code-switching that was not detected in this analysis of the curriculum documents.

In the course of this study I came to recognise that without being under any obligation, the English team has maintained a core syllabus which I believe is a real asset to students: 75% of students were able to enter employment directly, with the remainder going on to higher study (see 6.1.1.3). Over ten percent went on to further study, a figure that suggests that students are not exclusively prepared for the needs of the labour market. In respect of those who entered employment, I would argue that it is some confirmation that the TP has reached its goal of making students employable.

Through my study of the curriculum documents, I came to a fresh understanding of the independence and creativity of my colleagues. The study led to informal discussions during which my colleagues were able to produce strong arguments in favour of their differing interpretations of the English syllabus, from which this study has benefited. In all my encounters with them, I was impressed with their deep loyalty to the programme, and their long-standing experience, which allowed me to improve my understanding of the English programme and become more circumspect when proposing changes.

7.0 References

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8.0 Appendices

8.2 Appendix II - Curricula

MODULE	**Languages I**
ECTS-Credits	12

COURSE SUBJECT	***Business English 1***
Descriptor	
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)
Short Title	
Module Code	Languages I
Type	Core
Lecturer	
Phone and E-Mail	
Level	Intermediate + Advanced = Com. European. Framework B2/C1/C2
ECTS-Credits	3
Semester	1
Pre-requisites	
Restrictions	
Contact hours	30
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)
Exclusions	
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork, groupwork, presentation
Language of Tuition	English
Learning Outcomes	To develop listening and reading skills. For both reading and listening skills, the focus is on ▪ improving comprehension of a variety of oral and written texts ▪ using suitable listening and reading strategies ▪ extending grammar and vocabulary at the appropriate level ▪ acquiring and applying critical thinking skills
Course Outline	The course focuses on studying English in a professional context. Depending on the level, a range of business-related topics may be covered and will be selected to achieve the learning outcomes.
Indicative Learning Resources	Business English Grammar Builder, P. Emmerson, MacMillan (latest edition)
Assessment	Written exam of 90 minutes
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English 2

COURSE SUBJECT	***Business English 2***
Descriptor	
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)
Short Title	
Module Code	Languages I
Type	Core
Lecturer	
Phone and E-Mail	
Level	Intermediate + Advanced = Com. Europ. Framework B2/C1/C2
ECTS-Credits	3
Semester	2
Pre-requisites	Business English 1
Restrictions	
Contact hours	30
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)
Exclusions	
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork, groupwork, presentation
Language of Tuition	English
Learning Outcomes	Presentation of a business-related case study, effectively presenting information and analysis, using suitable presentation techniques
Course Outline	Development of presentation skills, depending on the respective level, but specifically focusing on appropriate skills in the following areas ° formal language e.g. discourse markers ° fluency ° pronunciation and intonation ° body language ° visual aids Grammar and vocabulary extension at the appropriate level.
Assessment	Written exam of 60 minutes /Oral presentation
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English 3
Indicative Learning Resources	Business English Grammar Builder, P. Emmerson, MacMillan (latest version)

MODULE	Languages II
ECTS-Credits	12

COURSE SUBJECT	*Business English 3*
Descriptor	
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)
Short Title	
Module Code	Languages II
Type	Core
Lecturer	
Phone and E-Mail	
Level	Level Common European Framework B2 / C1 / C2
ECTS-Credits	3
Semester	3
Pre-requisites	Business English II
Restrictions	
Contact hours	30
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)
Exclusions	
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork, groupwork, presentation
Language of Tuition	English
Learning Objectives	At the end of the course students will know and will be able to apply the conventions for writing academic papers, business reports, CVs and letters of application in English.
Course outline	General characteristics of formal writing (vocabulary, grammar, sentences and paragraphs) Processes involved in academic and professional writing Structure of academic and professional papers and reports CVs and letters of application Grammar and vocabulary extension at the appropriate level.
Assessment	End of semester written exam of 90 minutes and/ or submission of CV / academic paper / business report.
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English 4
Indicative Learning Resources	Business English Grammar Builder, P. Emmerson, MacMillan (latest version)

COURSE SUBJECT	***Business English 4***
Descriptor	
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)
Short Title	
Module Code	Languages II
Type	Core Related Minor
Lecturer	
Phone and E-Mail	
Level	Intermediate + Advanced = Com. Europ. Framework B2/C1/C2
ECTS-Credits	3
Semester	4
Pre-requisites	Business English 3
Restrictions	
Contact hours	30
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)
Exclusions	
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork,groupwork, presentation
Language of Tuition	English
Learning Outcomes	Focus on speaking and listening skills
Course outline	Development of speaking and listening skills in specific contexts e.g. in a job interview, networking, socializing. Grammar and vocabulary extension at the appropriate level.
Assessment	Written exam of 60 minutes (70%)/ oral component (30%)
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English 5
Other	None
Indicative Learning Resources	Business English Grammar Builder, P. Emmerson, MacMillan (latest version)

MODULE	Languages III
ECTS-Credits	3

COURSE SUBJECT	*Business English 5*
Descriptor	
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)
Short Title	
Module Code	Languages III
Type	Core
Lecturer	
Phone and E-Mail	
Level	Intermediate + Advanced = Com. Europ. Framework B2/C1/C2
ECTS-Credits	3
Semester	5
Pre-requisites	Business English IV
Restrictions	
Contact hours	30
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)
Exclusions	
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork, groupwork, presentation
Language of Tuition	English
Learning Outcomes	Develop knowledge of external examination formats, including the detailed requirements of at least one examination
Course outline Topics covered	Compare external examination formats, and their pros and cons Analyse the requirements of one external examination in detail, and prepare for the examination
Assessment	Written exam of 90 minutes
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English 6
Other	None
Indicative Learning Resources	Business English Grammar Builder, P. Emmerson, MacMillan (latest edition) In additional to the above lecturers may prescribe material individually at the appropriate level.

COURSE SUBJECT	***Business English 6***
Descriptor	
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)
Short Title	
Module Code	Languages III
Type	Core
Lecturer	
Phone and E-Mail	
Level	Level Common European Framework B2 / C1 / C2
ECTS-Credits	3
Semester	6
Pre-requisites	Business English 5
Restrictions	
Contact hours	30
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)
Exclusions	
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork,, groupwork, presentation
Language of Tuition	English
Learning Objectives	To demonstrate language competence at either B2, C1 or C2 level in an internal examination.
Course Outline	Building on the previous semester, semester 6 will concentrate on preparing students for internal examinations at the B2, C1 or C2 (CEF) levels. There will be grammar and vocabulary extension at the appropriate level, related to the requirements of the CEF levels.
Assessment	Written exam of 90 minutes
Subsequent Course Subject	none
Other	None
Indicative Learning Resources	As in semester 5

MODULE	Languages III
ECTS-Credits	6

COURSE SUBJECT	Business English III B2	
Descriptor		
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration	
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)	
Short Title		
Module Code	Languages III	
Type	Core Related Minor	
Lecturer		
Phone and E-Mail		
Level	Level Common European Framework B2	
ECTS-Credits	3	
Semester	3	
Pre-requisites	Business English II	
Restrictions		
Contact hours	30	
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)	
Exclusions		
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork, groupwork, presentation	
Language of Tuition	English	
Learning Objectives	To make a professional presentation at B2 level. To further develop key vocabulary and structures.	
	Themes covered : Case Studies in Business Grammar and vocabulary extension (Academic Word List) at the appropriate level.	
Assessment	Oral examination (presentation and/or negotiation case) in the course of the semester. End of semester written exam of 60 minutes	
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English IV	
Indicative Learning Resources	**mandatory**	Script Academic Word List (Coxhead,2000), Business Grammar Builder, (Emmerson, 2010)
	additional reading	www.economist.com

COURSE SUBJECT	Business English III C1	
Descriptor		
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration	
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)	
Short Title		
Module Code	Languages III	
Type	Core Related Minor	
Lecturer		
Phone and E-Mail		
Level	Level Common European Framework C1	
ECTS-Credits	3	
Semester	3	
Pre-requisites	Business English II	
Restrictions		
Contact hours	30	
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)	
Exclusions		
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork, groupwork, presentation	
Language of Tuition	English	
Learning Objectives	By the end of the semester the student will ▪ demonstrate a level of autonomy in business English with reference to the business world Written/oral communication At the end of 3rd semester students will be able to ▪ write a report/examination in English.	
	Themes covered : Raising Finance Customer service Team Building Grammar and vocabulary extension at the appropriate level.	
Assessment	Written exam of 90 minutes and oral examination if appropriate	
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English IV	
Indicative Learning Resources	**mandatory**	Market Leader Upper Intermediate Business English Course Book (new edition), Cotton, Falvey, Kent, Pearson Longman, ISBN 1-405-80309-1
	additional reading	At least occasional reading of business related articles in the Financial Times, Time Magazine or Newsweek, The Economist is advisable.

COURSE SUBJECT	Business English III C2	
Descriptor		
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration	
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)	
Short Title		
Module Code	Languages III	
Type	Core Related Minor	
Lecturer		
Phone and E-Mail		
Level	Level Common European Framework C2	
ECTS-	3	
Semester	3	
Pre-requisites	Business English II	
Restrictions		
Contact hours	30	
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)	
Exclusions		
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pair-work, group-work, presentation	
Language of Tuition	English	
Learning Objectives	Review and extension of passive and active vocabulary at C1 and C2 levels; review of important grammatical structures; introduction of complex grammatical features. Improving students' linguistic range and fluency in both oral and written communications. At the end of semester 6, students will be able to pass either CPE or CAE.	
	Themes covered: Fitness and health Science Safety and danger	
Assessment	Written exam of 90 minutes: Grammar & vocabulary, Reading comprehension, Listening	
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English IV	
Indicative Learning Resources	mandatory	• Kathy Gude, Michael Duckworth: Proficiency Masterclass, Student's Book (Oxford University Press), ISBN 987 0 19 432912 5 • Destination C1 & C2, Malcolm Mann and Steve Taylore-Knowles, Macmillan
	additional reading	

MODULE	Languages II
ECTS-Credits	6

COURSE SUBJECT	Business English II B2	
Descriptor		
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration	
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)	
Short Title		
Module Code	Languages II	
Type	Core Related Minor	
Lecturer		
Phone and E-Mail		
Level	Level Common European Framework B2 to C1	
ECTS-Credits	3	
Semester	3	
Pre-requisites	Business English II	
Restrictions		
Contact hours	30	
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)	
Exclusions		
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork, groupwork, presentation	
Language of Tuition	English	
Learning Objectives	To make a professional presentation at B2-C1 level. To further develop key vocabulary and structures. To write a report/examination in English.	
	Themes covered : Case Studies in Business Grammar and vocabulary extension at the appropriate level.	
Assessment	Written exam of 90 minutes and oral examination if appropriate	
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English IV	
Indicative Learning Resources	**mandatory**	Market Leader Upper Intermediate Business English Course Book (**third** edition), Cotton, Falvey, Kent, Pearson Longman, ISBN 978-1-4082-3709-0
	additional reading	At least occasional reading of business related articles in the Financial Times, Time Magazine, Newsweek or The Economist is advisable.

COURSE SUBJECT	Business English II C1	
Descriptor		
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration	
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)	
Short Title		
Module Code	Languages II	
Type	Core Related Minor	
Lecturer		
Phone and E-Mail		
Level	Level Common European Framework C1	
ECTS-Credits	3	
Semester	3	
Pre-requisites	Business English II	
Restrictions		
Contact hours	30	
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)	
Exclusions		
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork, groupwork, class discussion, individual research, peer and teacher feedback	
Language of Tuition	English	
Learning Objectives	At the end of the 3rd semester students will be able to ▪ critically analyse texts ▪ defend or attack a statement orally and in writing ▪ use typical phrases needed in discussions e.g. meetings ▪ write effective summaries	
	Themes covered : ▪ Language and techniques of argumentation ▪ Debate format and summary techniques ▪ Correct referencing and revision of structuring language, e.g. linking words	
Assessment	Oral examinations (debates), Written examination (Vocabulary and Grammar), written summaries	
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English IV	
Indicative Learning Resources	**mandatory**	Handouts distributed in class
	additional reading	Research conducted by students

COURSE SUBJECT	Business English II C2	
Descriptor		
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration	
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)	
Short Title		
Module Code	Languages II	
Type	Core Related Minor	
Lecturer		
Phone and E-Mail		
Level	Level Common European Framework C2	
ECTS-	3	
Semester	3	
Pre-requisites	Business English II	
Restrictions		
Contact hours	30	
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)	
Exclusions		
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pair-work, group-work	
Language of Tuition	English	
Learning Objectives	Improving students' linguistic range and fluency in both oral and written communications. Special focus this semester: Writing skills. • Business correspondence • CV + covering letter • Proposal • Report • Academic writing	
Assessment	Written exam of 90 minutes.	
Subsequent Course Subject	Business English IV	
Indicative Learning Resources	**Mandatory**	• Advanced Language Practice (3rd edition with key), Macmillan (ISBN 978 0 2307 2703 8) • Business Advantage Advanced, Cambridge University Press (ISBN 978 0 521 18184 6)
	Additional reading	As indicated by lecturer.

COURSE SUBJECT	Business English VI B2
Descriptor	
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)
Short Title	
Module Code	Languages VI
Type	Core Related Minor
Lecturer	
Phone and E-Mail	
Level	Level Common European Framework B2
ECTS-Credits	3
Semester	6
Pre-requisites	Business English V
Restrictions	
Contact hours	30
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)
Exclusions	
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pair-work, group-work, presentation
Language of Tuition	English
Learning Objectives	Development and consolidation of academic and business English at upper B2 level
Whole course outline Topics covered **See also English 5**	Semester 6 will concentrate on preparing students for internal examinations at the B2/B2+ level. In addition students may prepare for an external examination at the appropriate level. External examinations are optional; however, the final IBM examination will reflect the level taught, and the level will appear in the certificate. In this semester, specific attention will be given to speaking skills (for example at a meeting or conference) and writing skills (correspondence). Good listening skills will also be trained through use of realistic videos.
Assessment	Written exam of 80 minutes (80%); oral exam of circa. 10 minutes (20%)
Subsequent Course Subject	None
Other	None
Mandatory Indicative Learning Resources	• Script and supplementary materials (distributed in class and/or electronically)
Additional reading	As assigned by the lecturer.

COURSE SUBJECT	Business English VI C1	
Descriptor		
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration	
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)	
Short Title		
Module Code	Languages VI	
Type	Core Related Minor	
Lecturer		
Phone and E-Mail		
Level	Level Common European Framework C1	
ECTS-Credits	3	
Semester	6	
Pre-requisites	Business English V	
Restrictions		
Contact hours	30	
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)	
Exclusions		
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pairwork,, groupwork, presentations	
Language of Tuition	English	
Learning Objectives	Development and consolidation of business English at level C1. Improvement of reading comprehension and text analysis. Refinement of the language of presentations.	
Whole course outline Topics covered See also English 5	Reading and discussion of relevant contemporary business texts. Text analysis performed in groups and presentation of the results of those analyses to the class. Language structure input where required to achieve the aims of the course. Semester 6 will concentrate on preparing students for internal examination at the C1 level. In addition students may prepare for an external examination of the Cambridge suite Level B2 : Business English Certificate Vantage Level C1: Cambridge Advanced English/Business English Certificate Higher Level C2 Cambridge Proficiency in English. These examinations are optional; however, the final IBM examination will reflect the level taught, and the level will appear in the certificate.	
Assessment	Written exam of 60 minutes.	
Subsequent Course Subject	none	
Other	None	
Indicative Learning Resources	**mandatory**	
	additional reading	

COURSE SUBJECT	Business English VI C2	
Descriptor		
School / Department	Economics and Business Administration	
Course of Study	Trinational Programme (Bachelor)	
Short Title		
Module Code	Languages VI	
Type	Core Related Minor	
Lecturer		
Phone and E-Mail		
Level	Level Common European Framework C2	
ECTS-Credits	3	
Semester	6	
Pre-requisites	Business English V	
Restrictions		
Contact hours	30	
Overall hours (contact hours plus self-study)	90 (30 contact hours, 60 h self-study)	
Exclusions		
Teaching Strategy	Lecture, pair-work, group-work, presentation	
Language of Tuition	English	
Learning Objectives	Review of research and presentation skills and extension of formal writing skills Extension of grammatical and lexical competence associated with these skills	
Whole course outline Topics covered See also English 5	Semester 6 will concentrate on formal writing skills. Students will conduct research on a topic, present their interim findings and write a final report. In addition students will continue their preparation for the Cambridge Proficiency Exam This examinations is optional; however, the final IBM examination will reflect the level taught, and the level will appear in the certificate.	
Assessment	Presentation and term paper	
Subsequent Course Subject	None	
Other	None	
Indicative Learning Resources	**Mandatory:**	Handouts on academic writing supplied by lecturer
	Additional reading	

8.1 Appendix 1

BOOK : New Market Leader **Upper Intermediate**

Semester 1 in Colmar

topics	grammar	Additional resources
• Communication (U1) • Telephoning • Formal & informal emails	Noun compounds & phrases	Improving a telephone conversation "Secrets of silent speech" "Nobody wants to cause offence" "Email manners"
• International marketing (U2)	prefixes	"fashion victim fights back" "Samsung plays to the young" "Coca Cola in China" "Coffee Culture" "New colas" Case study "Changing names" LST lecture on brands
• Success and negotiating (U4) •	Conditionals & advanced conditionals	LST 3 negotiation dialogues SPK: Barking alarm RDG Schatzki "Selling and negotiating"

Semester 2 in Lörrach

Teacher's comments	A student's comments
I also used Market Leader Upper Intermediate (Class Book and Practice File) units 2-12 (specific page numbers unavailable)	we finished chapter "success" and "job satisfaction" (without the case studies).
I set several business-oriented writing assignments during the course, correcting each time for content (task completion), grammar, vocab, structure and register. Although most of these points improved somewhat, as of the final exam, I found that everyone still had persistent difficulty maintaining a consistently formal register.	In the class with Mr Shultis we mainly focused on other subjects like writing, additionally we worked a lot with samples of official language tests.
Texts: For grammar exercises, I supplied copies from relevant units of English Grammar in Use. Grammar topics for the Lörrach group were: • Adjectives / Adverbs • Present tenses, including perfect (simple, continuous) • Future continuous / perfect / perfect continuous • Past perfect / perfect continuous • Relative Clauses • Reported Speech • I wish... • Can't have./needn't have • Passives	

Semester 3 in Basel

U10 Customer Service

- Stresses in long words
- Dashes
- Active listening

U5 Job satisfaction & job hunting U12: Mergers and acquisitions

- Commenting on trends

07/03/13	• *Course Introduction*	Announce content: • more units in Market Leader Up Intermediate • more in-depth grammar at C1 level or above • Ask st about their wishes (specific topics or skills)	

Unit 12: Management styles			
	• *Warming up*	SPK : "Management style" • Write term on the board • Ask ss for definition	
	• *Build up lexis*	SPK: quotation "Management is tasks. Management is discipline. But management is also people." (Peter Drucker , Austrian-American management guru) • ask ss to comment on it • write "management is…" on the board and ask ss to find other words	
	•	VOC: management qualities • ex A • ex D • SPK : your own experience of management styles	Book p 67
	•	LST: Laurie Mullins • ex B, C (SPK) , D	P 67 + CD U 7
	•	LAN present tenses	Destination C1-C2 pp 8-
21/03/13	• *Review of present tenses*	Activities C & D Destinations p 9	
	• *Quick reading, reporting and comparing*	RDG: Anna Wintour, Jim Buckmaster & Liisa Joronen • Text + activity based on Bp 68	Book p 69 & 145 NML Int p 24 "Dirty business…"
	•	SPK: in pairs : contrast the styles of two CEOs	
	•	VOC adjectives describing managers 1. Act E p 68 2. Act D p 68	

		• Act F p 68	
	•	CASE STUDY "S & L"	
28/03/13	***SPORTS MANAGEMENT***		
	•	LST: Tom Bowen	You tube + worksheet

	• *Reading and reporting*	RDG/SPK: 5 documents about sports management careers • Rdg in pairs • Reporting	
	•	CSST: Kensington United	NML case study
11/04/13	•	SPK: sports management jobs • students present the jobs they read about	
	•	RDG : The Big Three • In 3 groups use act B on one particular part of the document • SPK : put info in common in the group • SPK: present findings	NML UpInt New
	•	VOC thinking	Dest pp 14-15
	• *Expanding vocab on attitudes*	RDG: S Zanninelly on coconut & peach SPK: slide of two pictures • define the two styles • if necessary hand out text • say what each thinks of the other	Ppt coconut and peach
	•	RDG / SPK three articles • Field marshalls • Which bosses are best? • Who would you rather work for?	
	•	RDG /SPK: High-powered job-sharers write a 300-word summary	
HWK	•	Essay: is recruiting a manager	

		just filling a position or is it a strategic decision?	
Unit 8: Team Building			
18/04/13	• *Warming up*	SPK: think of at least two advantages and two disadvantages of working in teams	Oral question
	• *Talking about interactions within teams*	RDG/SPK What sort of team player are you? • Students answer quiz individually • In teams of 4 discuss question 1	Book p 74
	• *Expanding lexis*	VOC "relationships & people 1. Have students do exercises A + B 2. Correct in common	From Destination C1&C2 pp 192-198
	•	LST: Dan Collins	Rec 2.25 Book p76
	•	RDG: 3 texts 1. Recipes for team building 2. Success and satisfaction 3. Capello's masterclass	Book p77 Text bank pp 142, 144
02/05/13	•	VOC review	Excerpts of ex A & B on screen
	•	RDG/SPK: Personality quiz (intro/extrovert from Time) 1. Student rate neighbour 2. Students complete test for themselves 3. Key is given • Two ratings are compared	Quizz from Time Feb 6 2012
	•	RDG: RDG: The upside of being an introvert	(Article from Time Feb 6 2012 (short version)
	•	SPK: Are introverts better team workers? • Preparation • Discussion	vocab list + quotations
	•	VOC relationships and people 1. Ex C,D,E	From Destination C1&C2

		- Correction - Idioms	
	•	LAN: Modal perfects	Book p78
16/05/12	• *Listening for gist*	SPK: resolving conflict • Ask students to categorise the statements with a show of hands for each one • Comment, discuss each	P 79 A
	• *Expanding lexis*	LST Karen, head of department • Listen and say which suggestions are used	P 79 B + recording
	•	VOC/LST: Karen, head of department • Listen and note down phrases	P 79 C + rec
	•	SPK: role play • St. play in pairs	P 79 D and role cards
	•	LAN modal perfect review • Gapped exercise	worksheet
	•	LAN the many uses of "might"	worksheet
	•	Case study p 79 (simplified without role cards)	
HWK	•	WTG: letter from case study p 81	
23/05/13		Hand out instructions for final test	
RAISING FINANCE (U 9)			
	Warming up	SPK/VOC money • Write « money » on the board and invite St to add verbs : (borrow, donate, earn, invest, lend, lose, make, obtain, provide, save, spend, transfer, waste, win, deposit)	

		SPK: proverbs • Book p 82 C	
		LST: Simon Davies Only parts 1&2	Book p 84
		VOC: financial terms	Book p 83
		LAN: dependent prepositions	Book p 86
30/05/13		LAN: review of dependent prepositions	worksheet
		RDG/SPK/LST: Financing start-up businesses	2 articles and worksheet from OMLUpInt pp78- 79
		LST: Simon Davies part 3	Book p 84 + recording 3.3
		CSST: Last throw of the dice • Read background p 84 • Together complete table below (board)	
		• Hand out p 89 • SPK what will Concordia ofer and require?	
		• Hand out role cards • Have students negotiate	
		LST to the father's phone call • Pairs renegotiate. • Pairs report on their deal	

Semester Programme and Test Semester 5

1) Grammar: Review of the past tenses; comparing
2) Vocabulary: General Business Vocabulary list, a – h; Extend and practise your vocabulary 1; Academic vocabulary (AWL), Vocabulary 2
3) Cambridge style "use of English" task (see BEC Higher exam)
4) Listening comprehension
5) Reading comprehension
6) Proposal, report or summary

English 6, Level B2

Semester	Spring 2014	**Lecturer**		**Email**	
Time	Friday, 8.15 – 10.50	**Class**	Intake 2011, B2	**Room**	2.14

Session	Date	Specific objectives:	Self-study 1) Vocabulary : General Business Vocabulary List BEC Higher 2) Further self-study assignments
1-3	**4/4**	Introduction to the course • The BEC Higher examination • Business skills: Case study	• Business vocabulary: I – Q
4-6	**11/4**	• BEC Higher: Listening & Speaking • Grammar: Prepositions	• ALP Vocabulary 7: Work
7-9	**25/4**	• BEC Higher: Reading • Grammar: Verbs + infinitive or -ing	• Business Vocabulary: R - W
10-12	**2/5**	• BEC Higher: Graph descriptions • Speaking practice	• Difficult numbers • Graph description
13-15	**9/5**	• Business skills: Negotiating • Grammar: Word order	• Writing: Report
16-18	**16/5**	• BEC Higher: Writing • Grammar: Relative clauses • Punctuation	• Writing: Proposal
19-21	**22/5**	• BEC Higher: Listening • Academic skills: Identifying key ideas & paraphrasing	• ALP Vocabulary 8: Business and money
22-24	**6/6**	• BEC Higher: Speaking • Grammar: Verbs and prepositions • Grammar: The use of the article /non-count nouns	• ALP Vocabulary 18: Education
25-27	**20/6**	• BEC Higher: Reading • Business skills: Business correspondence	• Business idioms
28-30	**27/6**	• Reserve • Revision	

Please note: The lecturer reserves the right to make changes to the above programme as deemed appropriate. Further self-study assignments will be given in class.

Course books:

- **Cambridge BEC Higher 5, Student's book with answers (ISBN-10:3-12-539939-4)**
- **Business Grammar Builder (ISBN-10: 3190427224)**

Semester Programme, Intake 2011, Semester 1, Level C1

Text
Peak Oil - list all the effects that an oil shortage might have on the economy
- vocabulary based on the text

What's in a title? Job titles and their meanings
Debate - is it ever right to fight (arguments in the workplace). Two opposing views.

Language - report writing phrases
- business verbs
- strategic business vocabulary 2
- prepositions
- prepositions (2)
- prepositions (3)
- general business vocabulary
- verb patterns
- word formation

Case Study - *planning for disaster*. You work for a Swiss multinational group which sells mineral water. Tiny and harmless quantities of a toxic substance have been found in a bottle of your most famous product in the USA, your biggest market. What do you do?

Semesterprogramm

Semester	FS 2012	**Dozent**	**Email**	
Unterrichtszeit	09.00 - 12.15	**Klasse**	**Zimmer**	K115

	Inhalt	**Workload in Minuten.**	**Individuelles Selbststudium**	**Workload In Stunden.**
06.03.12	Course induction Introduction to presentations: script p.49 First impressions ML: unit 1 `Visiting a trade fair' listening (CUP) 1-3 Introduction writing skills parts 1 & 2	180	Test 1 `transformed ' (CUP) Script p.23 gerund vs to infinitive (revision)	5
13.03.12	Warm up: speaking part 1 Networking ML p.10 Delivering structured presentations: part 2 (script) Speaking: interaction part 3: (Script p. 50) Adjectives vs adverbs: script p.38 Language of movement: script p. 35 Writing task part 1 Listening: test 1 (CUP) 1-3	180	Vocabulary A-C Practice file unit 1 Revision CB unit 3 & + Writing task p.20 Practice file Reading tests 2 & 3 (CUP)	5
20.03.12	Speaking Listening test 2 (CUP) 1-3 Ethics ML unit 6 Ethical business (error correction) Writing skills and task part 2 Conjunctions & participles (script) Use of English exercises (script)	180	Vocabulary C B: Reading tests 2 & 3 (CUP) Practice file unit 6 Practice file p.19 Writing task p.38	5
27.03.12	Listening: test 1 (CUP) 1-3 Presentations p.30 Speaking skills International presentations p.40/41 Dependent prepositions	180	Vocabulary D-E Reading tests 4 & 5 (CUP)	5
17.04.12	Listening: test 1 (CUP) 1-3 Finance Thinking on my feet p 100/101 Reading skills fine tuning `Littlewoods' Passive voice	180	Vocabulary M-P Reading tests 8 & 9 (CUP) Practice file unit 7 The Uncommon	5

			Good (The Economist)	
24.04.12	Listening: test 1 (CUP) 1-3 Speaking skills 1-3 Vocabulary R-W Ask and tell activity	180	Reading test 10 (CUP)	5
22.05.12	Examination: listening and reading comprehension	90	Keine erlaubte Hilfsmittel	

Advanced Market Leader Course and Practice File (I.Dubicka & M. O'Keeffe) ISBN: 978-1-4082-3703-8 & 978-1-4082-3704-5

Optional summer reading*: Uptown World* ISBN: 9781432784317

Amazon.de / fr /uk

Syllabus: Business English III C1
(Module: Languages III)
Course Focus: Academic and Professional Writing

Semester	3	**Lecturer**	
Time	8:15-10:50	**Room**	
Class	Intake 2011, C1 class		

Date	Lesson	Content
05.10.2012	1	• Introduction to course • Formal vocabulary • Grammatical issues in academic writing
19.10.2012	2	• Sentence structure in academic writing • Paragraph structure in academic writing
26.10.2011	3	• Choosing a job to apply for • Analysis of CVs • Writing a CV
09.11.2011	4	• Analysis of job advertisement • Analysis of letters of application • Writing a letter of application
16.11.2011	5	• The report-writing process • The introduction section • The methods section
23.11.2011	6	• Reporting results 1 • Discussing results 1
30.11.2011	7	• Reporting results 2 • Discussing results 2
07.12.2011	8	• The conclusion section • Abstract and management summary
14.12.2011	9	• Correction of CV • Correction of letter of application
11.01.2013	10	• In-text citation • List of references • Punctuation • Format and layout of reports

Mandatory reading	Handouts will be provided in class
Additional reading	Research for the semester assignment will involve a significant amount of additional reading on the topic chosen by the student

Assessment	Individual report of 1500 words on a business-related topic chosen by the student. Deadline for submission: 18 January 2013.

Syllabus: Business English 4, C1-C2 group

Course Focus: Sustainability Project

Semester	Spring Semester 2013	**Lecturer**	
Time	9:00-12:00	**Room**	
Class	Intake 2011, C1 andC2		

Date	Lesson	Content
07.03.2013	1	Introduction to sustainability
21.03.2013	2	Social aspects of sustainability Discussion of project topics
28.03.2013	3	Commercial aspects of sustainability Confirmation of project topics Annotated bibliography
11.04.2013	4	Critical case studies
18.04.2013	5	Critical case studies
02.05.2013	6	Presentations Additional exercises
16.05.2013	7	Presentations Additional exercises
23.05.2013	8	Presentations Additional exercises
30.05.2013	9	Presentations Additional exercises Course evaluation
06.06.2013	10	Presentations Additional exercises Feedback on course evaluation

Assessment	Presentation (15’ per student) and annotated bibliography (ca. 600 words)

Business English 5 C1 Class Autumn Semester 2013/14

Course outline

Lesson	Date	Class work	Homework
1	15.10.2013	Course introduction CPE diagnostic test	
2	29.10.2013	Discussion of project topics Listening in the CAE and CPE exams	CAE/CPE practice exercises Project work
3	05.11.2013	Reading in the CAE and CPE exams	CAE/CPE practice exercises Project work
4	12.11.2013	Use of English in the CAE and CPE exams	CAE/CPE practice exercises Project work
5	19.11.2013	Status reports on project work Speaking in the CAE and CPE exams	CAE/CPE practice exercises Project work
6	26.11.2013	Presentations	CAE/CPE practice exercises Project work
7	03.12.2013	Course review and evaluation Presentations	Exam preparation
8	10.12.2013	Final exam and submission of reports	

Course assessment

1. Vocabulary (20%): 100 words from your reading and/or the Academic Word List. Format: Printout of Excel file or table in Word file with headwords and:
i) translation or definition
ii) an example of the word in a sentence

2. Project work (30%): one of:
i) A presentation of ca. 8 minutes per student (15%) with an accompanying text of 500-1000 words (15%)
ii) A presentation of ca. 12 minutes per student (20%) with a one- to two-page handout (10%)
iii) A report of 1200-2000 words

3. Final written exam (90 minutes – 50%): Reading and use of English at CAE (C1) level

Syllabus: Business English VI, C1
(Module: Languages VI)

Semester	6	**Lecturer**	
Time	8:30-11:05	**Room**	
Class	Intake 2011, C1 class		

Date	**Lesson**	**Content**
04.04.2014	1	Course introduction Critical thinking 1
11.04.2014	2	Grammar topic 1 Critical thinking 2
25.04.2014	3	CAE writing exam 1 *Lord of the Flies*, chapters 1 and 2
09.05.2014	4	CAE writing exam 2 *Lord of the Flies*, chapters 3 and 4
16.05.2014	5	Critical thinking 3 *Lord of the Flies*, chapters 5 and 6
23.05.2014	6	Grammar topic 2 CPE writing exam
06.06.2014	7	Critical thinking 4 *Lord of the Flies*, chapters 7 and 8
20.06.2014	8	Grammar topic 3 *Lord of the Flies*, chapters 9 and 10
27.06.2014	9	Grammar topic 4 *Lord of the Flies*, chapters 11 and 12
04.07.2014	10	Final exam: Writing CAE (90 minutes)

Mandatory reading	*Lord of the Flies* by William Golding (any English edition)
Additional reading	Additional handouts will be provided in class

Assessment	In-class presentation (20%) Written exam (Writing tasks in CAE format) (80%)

SEMESTER PROGRAMME

Lecturer:
Class: Intake 2011, Semester 1, English Goal C2

Goals: 1) To develop reading skills (critical analysis) and listening skills (seminars)
2) To develop academic vocabulary
3) To become aware of trends in higher education

Materials: Script, Vocabulary List, Business Grammar Builder (Emmerson, P.), The Character of a Corporation (Goffee and Jones)

Programme:

Schedule	Contents		Self-study
13.10	***Script***	***Grammatik*** (BGB) ***Vokabeln*** (AWL)	
	Introduction Goals, Materials European Commission Research Listening (Ongoing)	AWL 1 BGB 2 Present 2 BGB 30 Uncountables	AWL 1 BGB Test 1 p.210 – 211 BGB Test 14 p. 232 – 233
20.10	**Fit for University 1** IMD University for SA's poor All at Sea LE Degree Distance Learning	BGB 4 Past Time 2 AWL 2	AWL 2 BGB Test 2 p. 212 - 213
3.11	**Fit for University 2** GMAT Struggling Students	BGB 6 Past & Present Revision AWL 1 + 2	GMAT RC BGB Test 3 p. 214 - 215
10.11	**Fit for University 3** Women at B-School University Sit-Ins	Unit 19 Gerund 1 AWL 3	B-School RC AWL 3
17.11	**Teambuilding 1** The class as a team	Unit 20 Gerund 2 AWL 4	BGB Test 9 p. 226 AWL 4

24.11	**Teambuilding 2** Idiomatic Language	Unit 47 Verb and Preposition Revision AWL 3 + 4	BGB Test 16 p. 236 only
1.12	**Teambuilding 3** The new boss Bonus Work	BGB 25 Make + do AWL 5	AWL 5 BGB Test 11 p. 229
8.12	General Revision	BGB 40 Time adverbs AWL 1-5 Revision	BGB Test 15 p.234, 15.2 only http://www.englishpage.com/verbpage/verbs12.htm
15.12	Examination		

	Examination	Written Examination: Text comprehension, Critical Analysis, Grammar and Vocabulary (90 Minutes)
	Additional Reading **AWL** **Verb Practice**	www.economist.com, www.swissinfo.ch http://www.englishvocabularyexercises.com/AWL/id17.htm www.englishpage.com

Calculation of Semester Mark:

Reading and writing (critical analysis) 50%
Grammar and Vocabulary 50%

Please note that in addition to the materials described in the programme above, vocabulary and grammar discussed in a detailed fashion in class may be tested.

Business English 2, English C2

FS 2012 / Semester 2	**Lecturer**

Date	**Script / AWL / BGB / other**	**Self Study (suggested)**
6.3	Script p.1-12 AWL 6 BGB 41, 42 Linking **Writing workshop (ongoing)** **Startup.com (ongoing)**	Review, AWL 6-10 http://www.englishvocabulary exercises.com/AWL/index.htm (ongoing) BGB 43 Linking
13.3	Script p.13 - 19 Futures BGB 7-8 AWL 7	Test 5, BGB 218 - 219 Passives BGB 9 - 10
20.3	p.20–30 AWL 8 Conditions BGB 17- 18	**3.4 Writing p.2/3 due** Test 8, BGB 17 - 18
27.3	Comparing BGB 37–38 AWL 9	Test 14, BGB 232 - 233
24.4	p. 31- 41 Focus on CVs and Covering Letters Relatives BGB 28 - 29 AWL 10	Test 15, BGB p.234
15.5	p. 42 - 44 Skills: understanding accents around the world Review AWL 6 - 7 Review AWL 8 - 10 Review BGB	**15.5. Writing p.4 due (peer review)** Exam preparation
22.5	Examination: Writing, GV, 90 Minutes	

The self-study indicated here is a suggestion only. Students may have to do more (or less) work depending on their ability.

The lecturer reserves the right to change this programme during the semester if the need arises.

Syllabus: Course Business English 3
(Module "Communication")

Semester	3	**Lecturer**	
Time	8:15-10:50	**Room**	
Class	IBM2011 group A+B		

Date	**Lesson**	**Content**	**Self-study (ongoing)**
05.10.12	1-3	Course organisation Presentation Language *SA : Introduction*	Presentation Preparation (in pairs, on a South African theme) Grammar and Vocabulary Revision (Grammar: BGB; Vocabulary compiled in class on an ongoing basis)
19.10.12	4-6	Presentations: Planning & Techniques *SA: Tourism & Culture*	
26.10.12	7-9	BGB: 44 Linking Presentations: Pron. *SA: Pillars of Democracy*	
9.11.12	10-12	BGB: 45 Emphasis *SA: Nation Building 1*	
16.11.12	13-15	BGB: 22 – 23 Phrasals Presentation Proposals *SA: Nation Building 2*	
23.11.12	16-18	BGB: 48 Prepositions *SA: Apartheid & TRC*	
30.11.12	19-21	*Film/Special Interest Day* *SA: Presidents*	
7.12.12	22-24	*SA: Presentations* BGB: Revision 17 – 18, 43	
14.12.12	25-27	*SA: Presentations* Practice GV test	
11.1.13	28-30	Examination	
Mandatory reading	• Emmerson, P. (2008): Business Grammar Builder • Script (handed out in class)		
Additional reading	***Research for Presentation e.g. at*** www.mg.co.za / ***http://www.iol.co.za***		

Exam	Closed book exam (60 minutes) (60% of grade) Presentation (12 – 15 minutes) (40% of grade) 1(/20) Bonus points may be awarded in the examination, based on material covered in the semester, including the film

Changes to this programme may be announced in class if need be.

	Business English 5, English C2	
Date	**Script / other**	**Self Study (suggested)**
15.10	**Introduction and Goals** • **Comparing External Exam Formats (EEF)** • **Debating and Summarising** EEF: CPE Paper 1, Pt 1 - 3	http://www.flo-joe.co.uk/cpe/students/tests/
29.10	Affixes, Choosing the Right Word CPE Paper Pt 4-6	http://www.examenglish.com/cpe/CPE_vocab.htm
5.11	Idioms	Review Business Grammar Builder CPE Pt 7
12.11	Phrasals De Verb review	Prepare bates / summary
26.11	Collocation De Debates	Prepare bates / summary
3.12	Open Programme	Prepare Debates / summary Debates
10.12	Examination: Reading / GV, 90 Minutes	
Evaluation: Debate and Summary 25%, GV 75% The summary should be 250-300 words long and should present arguments for and against a statement of opinion. Each debating pair produces a summary. The summary is to be handed in on the day of the pair's debate. Students will be given credit for referring to valid external sources, for instance serious newspapers.		
Mandatory Reading: *Business Grammar Builder*		
The self-study indicated here is a suggestion only. Students may have to do more (or less) work depending on their ability. The lecturer reserves the right to change this programme during the semester if the need arises.		

		Course Business English 6 (Module "Communication")	
Semester	6	**Lecturer**	
Time	8:15-10:50	**Room**	4.13
Class	Intake 2011 group A+B		

4.4.14	1-3	Course organisation Key Concepts, Job Applications Introduction, CPE Writing	• Students find a job advertisement and write a CV and application letter based on it • Students read 'Character of a Corporation' and become aware of its key concepts • Students learn formal writing formats and vocabulary (application letters, CPE writing)
11.4.14	4-6	CVs and Application Letters 1 Interview Techniques CPE Language Focus	
25.4.14	7-9	CVs and Application Letters 2 Interview Techniques CPE Language Focus	
9.5.14	10-12	CVs and Application Letters • Workshop	
16.5.14	13-15	Hand in CV portfolios (25%) Job Interview (25%)	
23.5.14	16-18	CPE Writing Tasks Related Grammar and Vocab	
6.6.14	19-21	CPE Writing Related Grammar and Vocab	
20.6.14	22-24	Film Discussion, Character of a Corp.	
27.6.14	25-27	Revision	
4.7.14	28-30	Examination (45 minutes)	
Mandatory reading	• 'Character of a Corporation' (Goffee and Jones) • Script (handed out in class)		
Additional reading	***Job Research, online platforms e.g. jobs.ch***		

Evaluation	16.5.14 - hand in CV portfolio (job advert, application letter, CV) 25% - job interview 25% 4.7.14 - CPE writing format (50% of grade), 45 minutes

Changes to this programme may be announced in class if need be.

SEMESTER PROGRAMME

Lecturer:
Class:
Intake 07, Semester 6, B2

Goals: *1) To develop writing skills (critical analysis) and listening skills (seminars)*
- *To become more familiar with current South African issues e.g. the World Cup preparations*
- *To engage in debate on current issues*

Materials: *Script, Vocabulary List*

Programme:

Date	**Material**		**Homework**
	Theme	*Activitiews*	*Vocabulary List*
9.4	Country Profile		
16.4	The World Cup	Listening Seminar 1	L,M,N
23.4	Zuma	LS 2	L,M,N
7.5	Nation Building I	LS 3 / L-N Revise	O,P,Q
21.5	Nation Building II	LS 4	O,P,Q
28.5	Apartheid & Racism	LS 5 / L–Q Revise	R, S
4.6	TRC	LS 5	R, S
11.6	Crime: The Wild South	LS 6 / R – S Revise	T,U,V,W
18.6	Review	LS 7	T,U,V,W
9.7	EXAM		

Calculation of Semester Mark:

Listening Seminar / Presentation 20% Reading and writing (critical analysis) 50% Vocabulary List 30%

Semester Programme

Spring 2011	**English Group B2, Semester 2**	**Email:**

Date	**Grammar / Skills**	**Materials**
8/4	Past & present perfect /intro to presentations	Reading text 1
15/4	Future (1). Presentations 1 & feedback. Text 1 discussion	Video "Tea with the Economist"
29/4	Future (2). Presentations 2 & feedback. Writing a covering letter.	Reading text 2
6/5	Job interviews 1. Presentations 3 & feedback. Text 2 discussion	Video – interviews 1
13/5	Job interviews 2. Listening comprehension. Presentations 4 & feedback	Video – interviews 2
20/5	Word order (1). Presentations 5 & feedback	Reading text 3
27/5	Word order (2). Text 3 discussion. Presentations 6 & feedback	
10/6	Presentations 7 & feedback. Deadline for handing in job portfolio	Reading text 4
17/6	Presentations 8 & feedback. Text 4 discussion.	
24/6	(Further presentations if required). Course review & feedback on job portfolios.	
1/7	Exam	

Semester Programme

Spring 2012	**English Group B2 Basel , Semester 2**	

	Date	**Content**	**Materials**
1.	20/4	Course introduction. Grammar review. Introduction to presentations	Presentations hand-out 1
2.	27/4	Future (1). Presentations 1 & feedback.	Video "Tea with the Economist"
3.	4/5	Future (2). Presentations 2 & feedback.	Presentations hand-out 2. Reading text.
4.	11/5	Presentations 3 & feedback. Text discussion	Presentations video 1
5.	25/5	Listening comprehension. Presentations 4 & feedback	
6.	1/6	Word order (1). Presentations 5 & feedback	Reading text
7.	8/6	Word order (2). Text discussion. Presentations 6 & feedback	Presentations video 2
8.	15/6	Presentations 7 & feedback.	Reading text
9.	22/6	Presentations 8 & feedback. Text discussion.	
10.	29/6	(Further presentations if required). Course review.	
	TBC	Exam	

Syllabus: Course 'Business English 3 B2 (Module „Languages III")

Semester	3	**Lecturer**	
Time	8.15 - 10.50	**Room**	
Class	Intake 2010, group English B2		

Date	Lesson	Content
7.10.2011	1-4	(1) Introduction to presentations: HW: BGB 44, 45 Presentation concept, Key Lexis 1 Text: It's all in the eyes Case Study: How not to do it/ How to do it
14.10.2011	5-8	(2) Communication theory: HW: BGB 12,13 The Mode, Tenor and Field Text: CEOs take charge Key Lexis 2 Case Study: How not to / How to
21.10.2011	9-12	(3) Presentations: HW: 17, 18 Text: 7 Body Language Killers Presentation Karaoke Pronunciation 1
4.11.2011	13-16	(4) Criteria and Format of Evaluation HW: Grammar Revision Case Studies Pronunciation 2
11.11.2011	17-20	(5) Key Lexis 2, HW: Presentation Prep. Presentation Karaoke 2 Pronunciation 3
25.11.2011	21-24	(6) Practicing Fluency HW: Presentation Prep. Body Language
2.12.2011	25-28	(7) Presentations and Evaluation
9.12.2011	29-32	(8) Presentations and Evaluation
16.12.2011	33-36	(9) Presentations and Evaluation
13.01.2011	37-40	(10) Examination

Mandatory reading	Business Grammar Builder, Emerson, P.; Script
Additional reading	***Presentation Preparation: Research***

Exam	*Closed-book exam (60 minutes) Grammar and Vocabulary (50% of grade)* *Team presentation during the semester 15 Min. (50% of grade)*

SEMESTER PROGRAMME

Lecturer:
Class: Intake 10, Semester 4, B2

Goals: 1) To develop writing skills (application letters), effective CVs and interview techniques.
2) To develop knowledge of academic vocabulary and verbs combining with prepositions

Materials: *Script, Vocabulary List, Business Grammar Builder (Emmerson, P.)*

Programme:

Schedule	**Contents**		**Self-study**
15.3	***Script***	***Grammatik*** (BGB) ***Vokabeln*** (AWL)	
	Introduction Goals, Materials European Commission Research Script 1 – 5 Guest Speaker	BGB 22 Phrasal Verbs AWL 6	Bring CV and Application Letter to class on 22.3
22.3	Script: 6 – 14 Peer Review: CV and Application Letter (ongoing)	BGB 23 Phrasal Verbs AWL 7	BGB Phrasal verbs revision p.227 -228
29.3	Script:15 - 22	BGB 28 Relatives AWL 6 & 7	Revise AWL 6 & 7
12.4	Script 23 - 35	BGB 29 Relatives AWL 8	BGB Relative clause revision p.231

19.4	Script 36 – 40 (Listening, Accents)	~~BGB 24 -ing forms~~ AWL 9	**HW for 3.5: write an application to one of the jobs on pages 23 -31**
3.5	Writing Practice = Proofreading / CV Revision	~~BGB 47 Verbs + preps~~ AWL 10	**Hand in date: job application**
10.5	Script 41 – 48 (Listening, IELTS) Revision Review feedback: job application	Revise AWL 8 - 10	Revision
24.5	Job Interviews / Exam practice		Revision
31.5	Job interviews / Exam practice		Revision
7.6	Written Examination: application letter, grammar and vocabulary (90 Minutes) (80%) Oral examination: job interview (20%)		
Additional Reading **AWL** **Verb Practice**	www.jobsite.co.uk/bemyinterviewer/ http://www.englishvocabularyexercises.com/AWL/id17.htm www.englishpage.com		

Please note that in addition to the materials described in the programme above, vocabulary and grammar discussed in a detailed fashion in class may be tested.

SEMESTER PROGRAMME, IBM 10, SEMESTER 5

Goals: *1) To develop competence external benchmarks at B2 level (FCE / BEC Vantage).*

- *In particular, to focus on listening and reading skills in the external examinations.*
- *To receive a background to contemporary South African culture and society.*

Materials: *Script, Vocabulary List*

Programme:

Schedule	**Contents**	
25.9	***Script***	***Vokabeln*** (BEC)
	Introduction BEC V format Listening / Reading SA: Background	Vocab A
16.10	FCE Listening / Reading SA: Education	Vocab B - C
30.10	BEC Vantage Writing / Speaking SA: BEE	Vocab D - F
6.11	FCE Writing / Speaking SA: Two presidents	Vocab G - I
13.11	Listening: Accents 1 SA: Current Issues 1	Vocab Revision
20.11	Examinations Practice Listening: Accents 2 SA: Current Issues 2	Vocab Revision
27.11	EXAMINATION	
Additional Reading / Homework	**Students are encouraged to study at their own pace and according to their needs.** **Further reading:** **BEC Vantage** **www.cambridgeesol.org/exams/bec-vantage/index.html First Certificate (FCE) http://www.cambridgeesol.org/exams/fce/index.html**	

Please note that in addition to the materials described in the programme above, vocabulary and grammar discussed in a detailed fashion in class may be tested.

Business English 6, English B2

Semester	*Lecturer*
FS 2013	

Date		Self Study (suggested}
5.4	Introduction Goals: (1) Writing; Apologies/ Complaints / Critical analysis (IELTS} • Speaking (IELTS} • Vocabulary Building / Proofreading	• *Register at Moodie course (link tofollow by mail) and check for tasks/ updates on a regular basis* • *Practice writing: hand in 26.4, 24.5 (fEL TS Format)* • *For GV examination, learn vocabulary list j-z, and vocabulary test formats*
12.4	Case Study: iPhones; Writing : Useful expressions,	• *Oral examination (20%, 21.6), /EL TS Format Written Examination {80%, 28.6}*
19.4	Feedback: Self-Recording External Examination Format (EEF)	
26.4	Case Study: Olympic Homes (EEF), Vocabulary j - m	
17.5	Case Study: Indesit Washing Machines Hand in practice writing, Vocab n - p	
24.5	Case Study: Faulty Cars Writing Feedback	
31.5	Case Study: Non-smoking Hotel Hand in practice writing Vocabulary q-z	
7.6	General Revision	
21.6	Oral Examination (20%)	
28.6	TEST: Written Examination Writing (50%}, GV (30%}	

The self-study indicated above is a suggestion only. Students may have to do more (or less) work depending on their ability.

The lecturer reserves the right to change this programme during the semester if the need arises.

Syllabus: ENGLISH 6

Semester	6	**Lecturer**	
Time	8.15 – 10.50	**Room**	4.15
Class	Intake 2008, Level C1		

Date	**Lesson**	**Content**
08.04. 2011	1-3	• Course contents semester 6 • Introduction to GMAT • Reading and discussion: Sample GMAT writing tasks + "Of business schools, scores and scandal"
15.04. 2011	4-6	• GMAT: Introduction to *Critical Reasoning* section • Destination C1&C2: Unit 2, *Thinking and Learning* • Advanced vocabulary practice and topic discussion
29.04. 2011	7-9	• GMAT: Critical reasoning practice • Destination C1&C2: *Complex sentences* • Discussion: Student input
06.05. 2011	10-12	• GMAT: Introduction to *Sentence Correction* section • Discussion: student input
13.05. 2011	13-15	• GMAT: Sentence correction practice • Complex sentences part 2 • Destination C1&C2: Vocabulary unit related to previous weeks' discussion topics
20.05. 2011	16-18	• GMAT: Introduction to *Reading Comprehension* section • Discussion: Student input • BEC Higher: „Reading" section
27.05. 2011	19-21	• GMAT: Reading Comprehension practice • Destination C1&C2: Unit 7, *Passives and Causatives* • Discussion: Student input
10.06. 2011	22-24	• GMAT: Analytical writing assessment • Discussion: Student input
17.06. 2011	25-27	• Destination C1&C2: Vocabulary unit related to previous weeks' discussion topics • Destination C1& C2: Conditionals revisited (Units 12/13) • Academic writing
24.06. 2011	28-30	• **Oral exams in pairs** • Revision
01.76. 2011	31-33	• **Oral exams in pairs** • Revision
07.07. 201	**Written exam**	13.20-14.30
Mandatory reading		Destination C1 & C2: Grammar and Vocabulary with Answer Key (Macmillan)
Additional reading		GMAT Strategies, Practice and Review 2011

Semester Mark	Oral exam (50%) Written closed-book exam (50%)

Syllabus: Course Business English 6
(Module "Communication")

Semester	6	**Lecturer**		
Time	8:15-10:50	**Room**		
Class	Intake 2009, group C1			

Date	**Lesson**	**Content**	**Self-study (ongoing)**
20.04.2012	1-3	Course organisation (1a) CV formats	Job search CV / Letter preparation Vocabulary List j - z BGB 49
27.04	4-6	(1a) CV formats (continued)	
4.5	7-9	(1b) Application Letters	
11.5	10-12	(1b) Application Letters (continued)	
25.5	13-15	(1c) Interview techniques	
1.6	16-18	(1c) Interview techniques	
8.6	19-21	(2a) External Examination Formats (EEF) – Reading / Listening	
15.6	*22-24*	(2b) EEF - Writing/Speaking	
22.6	25-27	(2c) EEF - Reading/Writing	
29.6	28-30	Revision	
6.7		EXAM, (Writing, GV)	
Mandatory reading		• Emmerson, P. (2003): Business Grammar Builder	
Additional reading		***Online research (job search, examinations) is required in this course***	

Exam	Closed book exam (90 minutes) (100% of grade)	

Changes to this programme may be announced in class if needs be.

(Module „Languages III“)

Semester	3	**Lecturer**	
Time	8:15-10h50	**Room**	
Class	IBM2010, C1 class		

Date	Lesson	Content
07.10.2011	1	Team building (unit 8) • Talking about experiences of team work • Listening: building successful teams • Vocabulary: prefixes
14.10.2011	2	• Reading: the key to successful team building • Language review: modal perfect • Roleplays about resolving conflict
21.10.2011	3	• Case study • Reading of various articles and reporting
04.11.2011	4	Management styles (unit 12) • Building up topic-related vocabulary • Listening • Reading ‘The big three”
11.11.2011	5	• Discussing the topic of small talk and the “coconut and peach” styles • Simulation small talk in business situations • Listening • Case study
25.11.2011	6	• Reading various articles on management styles and reporting • Language review: text reference • Discussing the “ideal” style
02.12.2011	7	Takeovers and mergers (unit 13) • Vocabulary to describe takeovers and mergers • Listening • Reading “Making a corporate marriage work”
09.12.2011	8	• Case study • Language review: Reading press headlines
16.12.2011	9	• Writing a report • Reading and reporting on various acquisition and merger cases
13/01.2012	EXAM	

NOTE: this syllabus organisation may be subject to alterations and additions,

Mandatory reading	Students will be required to use the following text book in each of the classes : • Market Leader, Upper Intermediate Business English Course Book, new edition by Cotton, Falvey & Kent, Pearson-Longman They will be provided with a number of aditional material taken from various sources, mainly business papers as well as with some tailor-made worksheets.
Additional reading	Additional reading of the English-speaking press is advisable.

Exam	Closed-book exam (60 to 120 minutes) covering listening, reading and writing skills as well as grammar and vocabulary (100% of grade)

Syllabus: Business English I, C1 group

Course Focus: Academic reading skills

Semester	1	**Lecturer**	
Time	9:00-12:00	**Room**	
Class	Intake 2012, C1 class		

Date	**Lesson**	**Content**	**Homework**
04.10.2012	1	Placement test	
11.10.2012	2	Course introduction Present tenses The reading process Previewing the text	*BGB* Units 1-2 Reading practice
18.10.2012	3	Past tenses Reading skills: Dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary	*BGB* Units 3-4 Reading practice
25.10.2012	4	Present perfect tenses Reading skills: Understanding logical structure	*BGB* Units 5-6 Reading practice
08.11.2012	5	Future forms Reading skills: Understanding details	*BGB* Units 7-8 Reading practice
15.11.2012	6	Question forms CVs	*BGB* Units 15-16 Reading practice
22.11.2012	7	Nouns and pronouns Letters of application	*BGB* Units 30-31 Exam practice
29.11.2012	8	Determiners, possessives and compound nouns Reading skills: Critical reflection	*BGB* Units 32-33 Reading practice
13.12.2012	9	Articles Reading skills: Putting it all together (exam practice)	*BGB* Units 34-35 *BGB* Tests 1-4, 14 Exam preparation
20.12.2012	10	EXAM 90 minutes, written Reading comprehension, grammar, vocabulary	

Mandatory text	Emmerson, Paul (2011), *Business Grammar Builder*, *Intermediate to Upper-Intermediate*, second edition. Macmillan ISBN: 978-0230732544, or 978-0230732520, or Hueber ISBN: 978-3190427222 (*BGB*)
Additional reading	Reading texts set for homework will provide a significant amount of additional reading

Assessment	Written exam, 90 minutes, 20.12.2012

Business English 2 C1 Class Spring Semester 2013

Course outline

Lesson	**Date**	**Class work**	**Homework**

1	26.02. 2013	Introduction to the course Secrets of successful presentations The presentations process Sustainability – an introduction	Grammar: *BGB* Units 11-12 Preparation of presentation
2	05.03.2013	The structure and language of presentations Sustainability – environmental aspects	Grammar: *BGB* Units 43-45 Preparation of presentation
3	12.03.2013	Confirmation of presentation topics Preliminary analysis Visual aids Sustainability – social aspects	Grammar: *BGB* Units 13-14 Preparation of presentation
4	19.03.2013	Delivery Sustainability – commercial aspects	Grammar: *BGB* Units 17-18 Preparation of presentation
5	09.04.2013	Student presentations Feedback and further activities	Grammar: *BGB* Units 19-20 Preparation of presentation
6	16.04.2013	Students presentations Feedback and further activities	Grammar: *BGB* Units 21-23 Preparation of presentation
7	30.04.2013	Student presentations Feedback and further activities	Grammar: *BGB* Units 24-25 Preparation for final exam
8	07.05.2013	Final exam Use of English and listening (60 minutes)	

Syllabus: Business English III C1
Module: Languages III
Course Focus: Academic and Professional Writing

Semester	3	**Lecturer**	
Time	Friday, 8:15-10:50	**Room**	

Class	Intake 2012, C1 class		

Date	**Lesson**	**Content**
04.10.2013	1	• Introduction to course • Formal vocabulary • Grammatical issues in academic writing
11.10.2013	2	• Sentence structure in academic writing • Paragraph structure in academic writing
18.10.2013	3	• The report-writing process • The introduction section • The methods section
25.10.2013	4	• Reporting and discussing results 1
01.11.2013	5	• Reporting and discussing results 2
22.11.2013	6	• The conclusion section • Abstract and management summary
29.11.2013	7	• In-text citation • List of references
06.12.2013	8	• Punctuation • Format and layout of reports
13.12.2013	9	• Feedback on draft reports
10.01.2014	10	• Self-study and peer coaching

Mandatory reading	Handouts will be provided in class
Additional reading	Research for the semester assignment will involve a significant amount of additional reading on the topic chosen by the student

Assessment	Individual report of ca. 1500 words on a business-related topic chosen by the student. Deadline for submission: midnight, 17 January 2014.

Syllabus: Business English 4, C1-C2 group

Course Focus: Globalization

Semester	Spring Semester 2014	**Lecturer**	

Time	varies	**Room**	
Class	Intake 2012, C1 andC2		

Date	**Lesson**	**Content**
07.03.2014	1	Key issues in globalization
02.04.2014	2	Coaching and project work
09.04.2014	3	Presentations and complementary tasks
16.04.2014	4	Presentations and complementary tasks
17.04.2014	5	Presentations and complementary tasks
15.05.2014	6	Presentations and complementary tasks
22.05.2014	7	Presentations and complementary tasks
05.06.2014	8	Exam

Assessment	Presentation (10’ per student, 50%), and final exam (vocabulary and CAE / CPE reading task)

SEMESTER PROGRAMME

Lecturer:
Class: Intake 13, Semester 1, English Goal C1

Goals: 1) To develop reading skills (critical analysis) and listening skills (seminars)
- To develop academic vocabulary
- To become aware of trends in higher education

Materials: Business Grammar Builder (Emmerson, P.)

Programme:

Schedule	Contents		Self-study
Week 1 3.10.13	***Script***	***Grammatik*** (BGB) ***Vokabeln*** (AWL)	
	PLACEMENT TEST		
Week 2 10.10.13	**Introduction** Goals, Materials Correspondence: 17 - 20	AWL 1 BGB 2 Present 2 Correspondence	AWL 1 BGB Test 1 p.210 – 211
Week 3 7.11.13	**Case Study 1** Notewagon Listening: FCE, p.55 Correspondence: 24 - 28, 33	BGB 3 and 4 Past Time AWL 2	AWL 2 BGB Test 2 p. 212 - 213
Week 4 14.11.13	**Case Study 2** Mobile Phone Bill Shock Correspondence:, 21 - 24, 30	BGB 6 Past & Present Revision AWL 1 + 2	BGB Test 3 p. 214 - 215
Week 5 21.11.13	Writing Feedback Listening: BEC Vantage, p.41 Correspondence: 29-35	BGB 9 and 10 Passives AWL 3	AWL 3 Test 5, p.218 - 219

Week 6 28.11.13	**Case Study 3** Chocbox Correspondence 36 - 40	BGB Revision AWL 4	BGB Revision AWL 4
Week 7 12.12.13	**Case Study 4** Indesit Writing Workshop	Unit 47 Verb and Preposition Revision AWL 3 + 4	BGB Test 16 p. 236 only
Week 8 19.12.13	Listening: p.61 Listening Workshop	BGB 25 Make + do AWL 5	BGB Test 11, p. 229 AWL 5
Week 9 9.1.14	Examination		

	Examination	Written and Listening Examination: (90 Minutes)
	Additional Reading **AWL** **Verb Practice**	www.economist.com, www.swissinfo.ch http://www.englishvocabularyexercises.com/AWL/id17.htm www.englishpage.com

Calculation of Semester Mark:

Listening 30%
Writing 30%
Grammar and Vocabulary 40%

SEMESTER PROGRAMME

Lecturer :
Class : Intake 06, C2
Time : Tuesday 9.00 – 12.15 (except 27.4, 8.5, 15.5) SS 07
Dates : 6.3; 13.3; 20.3; 27.3; 3.4; 17.4; 24.4; 8.5; 15.5
Location:
Subject : Business English

Goals: 1. To develop and evaluate writing skills (BEC Higher)
2. To develop and evaluate grammar and vocabulary (GV) at this level
3. To practice speaking and discussion skills (SD)

Materials: ALP (Vince), script

Programme:

6.3 Return exams; introduction to materials; ALP p.200 – 203 U4 Places

13.3 SD; ALP p.204 – 207 U5 Media & Advertising; hand in writing; script p.

20.3 SD; ALP U2 Travel and Movement p.193 – 195; script

27.3 SD; ALP U13 Health and the body; writing evaluation; script

3.4 SD; ALP U14 World Issues; script

17.4 SD; practice writing exam; script p.

24.4 SD; practice writing evaluation; script p. 21

8.5 Revision & evaluation practice GV; SD; script

15.5 Grammar and Vocabulary (GV) 9.00 – 10.00
Writing 10.00 – 11.00

Evaluation: Writing: 50%
GV: 50%

This programme may be subject to revision during the semester.

SEMESTER PROGRAMME

Intake 2008 6th Semester 'A' Class' Level C2

Subject: ENGLISH: Lecturer:

SEMESTER SS 2011 TIME: Friday morning 08.15-10.50

Aims

Preparation for CPE C2 (Proficiency) level.

Materials

Proficiency Masterclass: by Kathy Gude & Michael Duckworth

ISBN: 978-0-19-432912 5

Destination C1 & C2 (MacMillan)

Past CPE papers

Week	Date		Exam Preparation
1	08 April	Masterclass Unit 9 revision/10: Joining + ING	Writing
2	15 April	Masterclass Unit 10: Joining + Relative; C1 Unit 6	Reading
3	29 April	Masterclass : Summary writing: Inversion	Use of English
4	6 May	Masterclass Unit 10: C1 Unit 6	Listening
5	13 May	Masterclass Unit 11: C1 Unit 8 Movement	Oral
6	20 May	Masterclass Unit 11: C1 Unit 8 Movement	Writing
7	9 June	Masterclass Unit 11: C1 Unit 8 Movement	Reading
8	10 June	Revision: Phrasal verbs top 100	Use of English
9	14 June	Revision:	Listening / Oral
10	17 June	TEST Reading Comprehension	

Business English 5, Autumn 2011

Semester Programme

Semester	5	**Lecturer**		**Email**	
Time	Tue. , 9.00 - 12.15	**Class:** Advanced	**Coursebooks:** • Proficiency Masterclass (PM) • Destination C1 & C2 (D)	**Room**	K 215

Date	Course Contents	Self-study/Homework
27/9	• Introduction to the course • PM 7: Speaking, reading, vocabulary • Revision: Passive voice	• Vocabulary PM p. 96 • Comprehension & summary PM pp. 100/101 • D Unit 7, pp. 54 - 56
4/10	• Passive voice practice (PM & D) • Summary writing: PM p. 101 • Listening PM p. 102 • GMAT: Critical reasoning	• D Unit 7 (finish) • PM p. 99, Gapped sentences • Vocabulary: D Unit 24, ex. D - G
11/10	• Speaking: PM p. 103 • D Unit 24: Ex. K & L • Writing an article: PM p. 104	• Writing: PM p. 105 (double-space your text and note down the number of words) • CPE exam: Reading + Use of English
25/10	• CPE exam: Listening • Writing: Error analysis • PM 8: Speaking, reading	• PM pp. 109/110: Ex. D - F • D Unit 24: Ex. A - C, H - J, N • D Unit 23: Verbal complements, ex. A - F • Summary writing: PM pp. 114/115 • GMAT: Sentence correction
15/11	• PM pp. 111-113, Language in use: The perfect aspect • PM p. 116: Listening	• Writing practice: Letter to the editor (double space and

	• PM p. 117: Speaking • PM pp. 118: Letter to the editor	count words) • PM 120-121: Unit 8 overview • D Unit 23, ex. G - I
22/11	• Speed dating • PM 8: Speaking, reading, language • Revision: Reported speech	• PM p. 124, ex. D + E • Reported speech practice (handout) • Revision
24/11	• PM p. 130: Listening • PM 128: Summary writing	• CPE Listening practice: http://www.cambridgeesol.org/exam-preparation/index.html#cpe (Scroll down to ‚Free materials > Sample papers > Download now') • Revision exercises (handout)
6/12	**EXAM:** **1. Vocabulary and grammar (40%)** **2. Listening (40 %)** **3. Comprehension & Summary (20%)**	**CPE/CAE/IELTS Sample Papers (free downloads): http://www.cambridgeesol.org/exam-preparation/index.html**

Syllabus: ENGLISH 3, LEVEL C2 Winter term 2011 - 2012

Semester	3	**Lecturer**	
Time	Friday, 8.15 - 10.50	**Room**	4.15
Class	Intake 2010, group A+B	**Level**	C2 (CEFR)

Date	Lesson	Contents
07/10	1-3	(1) Introduction to the course: concept and structure, goals and tools (2) Needs analysis: Business skills (3) Topic 1: Fitness and health • Speaking: Language for argumentation • Vocabulary: Collocations & colligations, idioms, phrasal verbs • Use of English: Cloze exercise (= gapped text)
14/10	4-6	Topic 1 (continued) • Oral text summary • Structure: Defining & non-defining relative clauses • Reading comprehension & CPE summary writing

21/10	7-9	Topic 1 (continued) • Structure: Reduced relative clauses • Listening and speaking: Discussion phrases, comparing & contrasting • Writing a business proposal
04/11	10-12	(4) Topic 2: Science and progress • Reading comprehension • Vocabulary and word formation • Structure: Stative verbs > use of progressive forms • Discussion
25/11	13-15	Topic 2 (continued) • Reading comprehension and summary writing • Listening and speaking • Idioms: Book expressions • Writing: Proposal
02/12	16-18	(5) Topic 3: Safety and danger • Trinational discussion • Reading comprehension:Gapped text • Vocabulary • Structure: Use of modal verbs
09/12	19-21	Topic 3 (continued) • Extended speaking • Practice: Use of modal verbs • Editing: Conciseness and cohesion • Writing: Letter to the editor
12/01	25-27	Topic 3 (continued) • Listening comprehension • Revision: Vocabulary and structures

13/01	**CLOSED-BOOK EXAMINATION**
	40% Listening & Reading comprehension **40 % Vocabulary & Structures** **20% Summary writing**

Mandatory course books:

1. Gude, Kathy, and Duckworth, Michael. *Proficiency Masterclass, Student's book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press (ISBN: 978 0 19 432912 5)
2. Vince, Michael. *Advanced language practice (with key).* Oxford: Macmillan Education (ISBN: 1 405 00762 1)

Please note:

1. *In order to accommodate student needs arising in the course of the term (e.g. CV/application letter, presentations, academic writing), this programme is subject to change.*

2. *All materials dealt with in class or assigned as homework may be tested.*

Syllabus: ENGLISH 3, LEVEL C2 **Winter term 2011 - 2012**

Semester	3	**Lecturer**	
Time	Friday, 8.15 - 10.50	**Room**	4.15
Class	Intake 2010, group A+B	**Level**	C2 (CEFR)

Date	Lesson	Contents
07/10	1-3	(5) Introduction to the course: concept and structure, goals and tools (6) Needs analysis: Business skills (7) Topic 1: Fitness and health • Speaking: Language for argumentation • Vocabulary: Collocations & colligations, idioms, phrasal verbs • Use of English: Cloze exercise (= gapped text)
14/10	4-6	Topic 1 (continued) • Oral text summary • Structure: Defining & non-defining relative clauses • Reading comprehension & CPE summary writing
21/10	7-9	Topic 1 (continued) • Structure: Reduced relative clauses • Listening and speaking: Discussion phrases, comparing & contrasting • Writing a business proposal
04/11	10-12	(8) Topic 2: Science and progress • Reading comprehension • Vocabulary and word formation • Structure: Stative verbs > use of progressive forms • Discussion
25/11	13-15	Topic 2 (continued) • Reading comprehension and summary writing • Listening and speaking • Idioms: Book expressions • Writing: Proposal
02/12	16-18	(5) Topic 3: Safety and danger • Trinational discussion • Reading comprehension:Gapped text • Vocabulary • Structure: Use of modal verbs
09/12	19-21	Topic 3 (continued) • Extended speaking • Practice: Use of modal verbs • Editing: Conciseness and cohesion • Writing: Letter to the editor
12/01	25-27	Topic 3 (continued) • Listening comprehension • Revision: Vocabulary and structures
13/01		**CLOSED-BOOK EXAMINATION** **40% Listening & Reading comprehension** **40 % Vocabulary & Structures** **20% Summary writing**

Mandatory course books:

3. Gude, Kathy, and Duckworth, Michael. *Proficiency Masterclass, Student's book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press (ISBN: 978 0 19 432912 5)
4. Vince, Michael. *Advanced language practice (with key).* Oxford: Macmillan Education (ISBN: 1 405 00762 1)

Please note:

3. *In order to accommodate student needs arising in the course of the term (e.g. CV/application letter, presentations, academic writing), this programme is subject to change.*

4. *All materials dealt with in class or assigned as homework may be tested.*

Business English 5 C2 Class Autumn Semester 2012/13

Course outline

Lesson	Date	Class work	Homework
1	25.09.2012	Course introduction Introduction to new CPE exam Use of English tasks in CPE	Diagnostic test Use of English online exercises Use of English tasks from *Masterclass*
2	16.10.2012	Reading tasks in CPE *Masterclass* Unit 1	Exam practice tasks Reading online exercises Reading tasks from *Masterclass*
3	30.10.2012	Listening tasks in CPE *Masterclass* Unit 2	Exam practice tasks Listening online exercises Listening tasks from *Masterclass*
4	06.11.2012	Writing tasks in CPE *Masterclass* Unit 3	Exam practice tasks Writing online exercises Writing tasks from *Masterclass*
5	13.11.2012	Speaking tasks in CPE *Masterclass* Unit 4	Exam practice tasks
6	20.11.2012	Choice of tasks in CPE *Masterclass* Unit 5	Exam practice tasks
7	27.11.2012	Choice of tasks in CPE *Masterclass* Unit 6 Course review and evaluation	Exam preparation
8	04.12.2012	Final exam	

Business English 6 Basel, Spring 2012

Semester Programme

Semester	6	**Lecturer**		**Email**	
Time	According to timetable	**Class:** Advanced	**Coursebooks:** • Destination C1 & C2 (D) • Past CAE/CPE Papers	**Room**	4.15

Date	**Course Contents**	**Self-study/Homework Exam information: http://www.cambridge-esol-bs.ch/**
4/5	• Introduction to the course: CAE & CPE • EXAM SKILLS: Reading and Writing	• Finish CPE June 07 Reading • CPE Writing Part 1 • Revision: D Unit 2 , A – G • **Free placement test:** http://www.cambridgeesol.org/test-your-english/index.php/
13/4	• Advanced grammar revision 1 • EXAM SKILLS: Listening	• CPE June 07 Use of English • Revision: D Unit 2, H - O
20/4	• Writing: Error analysis • EXAM SKILLS: Summary writing	• Vocabulary: Words and phrases 1 • Idiomatic verbs
27/4	• EXAM SKILLS: Speaking	• D Unit 26, A – H • Words and phrases 2
4/5	• EXAM SKILLS: Use of English	• D Unit 26, I – P
11/5	• Advanced grammar revision 2 • EXAM SKILLS: Writing	• Past paper: Reading • Words and phrases 3

25/5	• Writing clinic • EXAM SKILLS: Speaking	• Past paper: Use of English
1/6	• EXAM SKILLS: Reading comprehension • EXAM SKILLS: Listening	• Revision: Prepositions • Revision: Phrasal verbs
22/6	• ORALS PRACTICE (or Exams)	
29/6	• ORALS PRACTICE (or Exams)	**CPE/CAE/IELTS Sample Papers (free downloads): http://www.cambridgeesol.org/exam-preparation/index.html** CPE Listening practice: http://www.cambridgeesol.org/exam-preparation/index.html#cpe (Scroll down to ‚Free materials'

Semester Programme C2, 1st semester (3 ECTS)

Semester	Autumn 2012	**Lecturer**		**Email**	
Time	Thursday, 09.00 – 12.00	**Class**	Intake 2012, Level C2	**Room**	007

Session	Date	Programme	Workload	Self-study as assigned by lecturer	Workload
1	04/10	Placement test	60’		
2	11/10	Introduction to the course **BA Unit 7: International communication**	150’	ALP Grammar 22	7.2 h
3	18/10	BA 7	150’	Business idioms; ALP Grammar 15	7.2 h
4	25/10	**BA 2: Standardisation and differentiation**	150’	ALP Grammar 1 + 3	7.2 h
5	08/11	BA 2	150’	ALP Grammar 7; ALP Vocabulary 16	7.2 h
6	15/11	**BA 8: International outsourcing**	150’	ALP Grammar 4	7.2 h
7	22/11	BA 8	150’	ALP Grammar 17	7.2 h
8	29/11	**BA 4: Entrepreneurship**	150’	ALP Vocabulary 8	7.2 h
9	13/12	BA 4	150’	Revision	7.2 h
10	20/12	**SEMESTER TEST:** Reading comprehension (50%) Vocabulary & Grammar (50%)	120’		7.2 h

Please note: The lecturer reserves the right to make changes to the above programme as deemed appropriate. Further self-study assignments will be given in class.

Course books: Business Advantage Advanced (BA): ISBN 978 0 521 18184 6
Advanced Language Practice with key (ALP): ISBN 978 0 2307 2703 8

English 3, Level C2

Semester	Autumn 2013/14	**Lecturer**			
Time	Friday, 8.15 – 10.50	**Class**	IBM 2012, C2	**Room**	4.15

Session	**Date**	**Specific objectives:**	**Self-study** **1) Vocabulary : Academic word list (AWL)** • **AWL:** http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/resources/academicwordlist/sublists • **AWL exercises:** http://www.englishvocabularyexercises.com/AWL/id21.htm **2) Futher self-study assignments**
1-3	**4/10/13**	Introduction to the course • Business correspondence: Letter writing conventions • Register: Informal vs. formal Mini-case: In the suggestions box	• Business correspondence phrases • Email reply to Jim Spicer • AWL Sublist 1
4-6	**11/10**	Business writing: • Complaint • Reply to complaint Grammar: Word order	AWL Sublist 2 ALP Grammar: Consolidation 1:Revision Units 1-4
7-9	**18/10**	Business writing: Job application Grammar: Punctuation and spelling (ALP Grammar 23)	ALP Vocabulary 18 (Education) ALP Vocabulary 7 (Work)
10-12	**21/10**	Business Advantage Advanced (BAA) Unit 6, Leadership Grammar: ALP Grammar 15 (Relatives and non-finite clauses)	Write your CV + covering letter (due November 29)
13-15	**25/10**	BAA Unit 6	AWL Sublist 3
16-18	**1/11**	Business writing: Report Introduction to academic writing	Writing: Report

		Grammar: ALP Grammar 16 (Verbs followed by an infinitive vs. the gerund)	
19-21	**29/11**	Academic writing: • Identifying key ideas • Paraphrasing • Organising paragraphs • Linking: ALP Grammar 22 Recommended online resource: http://npu.edu.ua/!e-book/book/djvu/A/iif_kgpm_t27.pdf	Summary
22-24	**6/12**	Academic writing: • Introduction to essay writing • Mentioning sources Grammar: ALP Grammar 11 (Inversion)	AWL Sublist 4
25-27	**13/12**	Reserve Revision	AWL Sublist 5
28-30	**10/1/14**	**SEMESTER TEST:** Part 1: Vocabulary and grammar (50%) Part 2: Writing (50%)	

Please note: The lecturer reserves the right to make changes to the above programme as deemed appropriate. Further self-study assignments will be given in class.

Course books: ***Business Advantage Advanced (BA): ISBN 978 0 521 18184 6***
Advanced Language Practice with key (ALP): ISBN 978 0 2307 2703 8

Intake 2013 Syllabus: Business English I, C2 group

Course Focus: Academic reading and critical thinking skills

Semester	1	**Lecturer**	
Time	9:00-12:00	**Room**	
Class	Intake 2013, C2 class		

Date	**Lesson**	**Content**	**Homework**
03 Oct.	1	Placement test	
10 Oct.	2	Course introduction The reading process	Prepare text 1
17 Oct.	3	Text 1 Dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary The CPE reading exam	Further reading Prepare text 2
7 Nov.	4	Text 2 Critical thinking 1	Further reading Prepare text 3
14 Nov.	5	Critical thinking 2	Further reading Prepare text 3
21 Nov.	6	Text 3 Critical thinking 3	Further reading Prepare text 4
28 Nov.	7	Practice exam Critical thinking 4	Further reading Prepare text 4
05 Dec.	8	Text 4 Critical thinking 5	Prepare Text 5 Exam preparation
12 Dec.	9	Critical thinking 6	Prepare Text 5 Exam preparation
19 Dec.	10	Text 5 EXAM 60 minutes, written Course feedback	

Additional reading	Reading texts set for homework will provide a significant amount of additional reading

Assessment	Written exam, 60 minutes, 19.12.2013 (80%), in course assessment (20%)

Business English 2 C2 Class Spring Semester 2014

Course outline

Lesson	Date	Class work	Homework
1	25.02. 2014	Introduction to the course Secrets of successful presentations The presentation process Sustainability – an introduction	Grammar: *Present time* Preparation of presentation
2	18.03.2014	The structure and language of presentations Sustainability – environmental aspects	Grammar: *Future time* Preparation of presentation
3	25.03.2014	Confirmation of presentation topics Preliminary analysis Visual aids Sustainability – social aspects	Grammar: *Past time* Preparation of presentation
4	01.04.2014	Delivery Sustainability – commercial aspects	Grammar: *Present perfect* Preparation of presentation
5	08.04.2014	CPE Listening Exam Student presentations	Preparation of presentation
6	15.04.2014	Student presentations	Preparation of presentation
7	29.04.2014	Student presentations	Preparation for final exam
8	06.05.2014	Final exam CPE listening (40 minutes)	

University of Applied Sciences and Arts Northwestern Switzerland
School of Business

DECLARATION OF INSTITUTIONAL CONSENT

I, in my capacity as Dean of Studies, Trinational Bachelor Programme (TP), University of Applied Sciences and Arts, Northwestern Switzerland (FHNW), indicate that I agree with the use of semester programmes and module descriptions in TP English language courses for research purposes. This agreement extends only to their use by James McMenamin in the context of his doctoral studies at Stellenbosch University, South Africa. I also indicate my agreement should Mr McMenamin wish to interview TP English teachers about English curricula they have designed. In addition, I declare that I am also fully in agreement with the researcher's use of TP materials in the public domain to this end.

Prof. Dr. Michael Pülz

Signed: _____

Date: __

8.4 Appendix IV - Sample of research participant consent form

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STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title:
Re-interpreting English for Academic Purposes in a trinational Bachelor's degree in Business Administration.

You have been asked to participate in a research study conducted by James McMenamin from the Department of Curriculum Studies at Stellenbosch University. The study is part of James McMenamin's PhD degree. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because of your knowledge of the English courses offered in the Bachelor in International Business Management.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study intends to obtain an overview of the English curriculum in the Bachelor of International Business Management (IBM), which is jointly offered by three universities in France, Germany and Switzerland. Although the trinational IBM degree has been offered for over ten years, such an overview is not currently available. The curriculum will be analysed in terms of information obtained from the literature review, which will include an analysis of language policy at macro, meso and micro levels in France, Germany and Switzerland, as well as ESP/EAP literature. The researcher's intention is that the research will allow recommendations to be made for the curriculum in future IBM English classes.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

1. Become acquainted with the goals of the research, the codes used for data analysis, and ask any questions you have may have, although questions are welcome at any stage (around 15 minutes);
2. Assign codes to a maximum of three curricula, at least one of which you used for a particular class (around 20 minutes);
4. Evaluate the plausibility of coding already done by the researcher on a five-point scale (one A4 page, around 15 minutes).
5. In a short interview, answer any open questions that may arise in respect of the data, and ask any questions that you may have (around 10 minutes).

The total time required for this procedure will be approximately an hour. The procedure will be repeated once for each participant.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

No risks or discomforts are anticipated, although having to set an hour aside to participate is a potential inconvenience for busy participants.

3. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The IBM programme has existed for over ten years now, but as of 2014 no attempt has been made to gain an overview of the material that is actually covered in the IBM English programme. Such an overview would be of interest to IBM management and especially to IBM English teachers, who teach parallel but are rarely able to compare their curricula. Furthermore, IBM management and English teachers will receive a summary of trinational language policy and notions of best practice from subject literature. This could be of interest to the planning of further IBM courses, and other business English courses at tertiary level, especially those in a multilingual context.

4. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

No payment is offered for participation, although the researcher is more than willing to return the favour and participate in any research undertakings of colleagues.

5. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of storage on a password-protected computer in a locked office.

Should the results of the research ever be published, no reference of any kind will be made to IBM English teachers in a way that might personally identify them.

Our conversations during the evaluation of curricula will be recorded to make sure all comments or questions can be recorded. As soon as these have been noted down in writing, these recordings will be deleted, which will occur not later than June 2015.

6. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

7. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact James McMenamin, james.mcmenamin@fhnw.ch, +41787485806.

8. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development at Stellenbosch University.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to me by James McMenamin in English and I am in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study and I have been given a copy of this form.

Andrew Brown

Name of Subject/Participant

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative 15.8.14 **Date**

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to Andrew Brown. He was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

Signature of Investigator 15.8.14 **Date**

8.5 Appendix V - Ethical Clearance Certificate

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jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

Approved with Stipulations

New Application

27-Aug-2014
McMenamin, James J

Proposal #: DESC/McMenamin/Aug2014/15

Title: Re-interpreting English language for academic purposes in a trinational Bachelor's Degree in Business Administration

Dear Mr James McMenamin,

Your **New Application** received on **08-Aug-2014**, was reviewed
Please note the following information about your approved research proposal:

Proposal Approval Period: **22-Aug-2014 -21-Aug-2015**

The following stipulations are relevant to the approval of your project and must be adhered to:
In the proposal it is stated (in Section 2.6 on p. 7) that "no personal data of any kind will be collected from individuals". However, an informed consent form for "possible participants" and a page of questions for participants are included in the application documents. Also, the institutional permission letter refers to the possibility of interviews with English teachers.

In addition, the study title provided in the proposal is not consistent with the title provided in the other application documents.

The applicant is requested to respond and clarify these inconsistencies in a note to the REC. Furthermore, these inconsistencies should be corrected in all documents relating to the project before final approval can be issued.

Please provide a letter of response to all the points raised IN ADDITION to HIGHLIGHTING or using the TRACK CHANGES function to indicate ALL the corrections/amendments of ALL DOCUMENTS clearly in order to allow rapid scrutiny and appraisal.

Please take note of the general Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

Please remember to use your **proposal number** (**DESC/McMenamin/Aug2014/15**) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your research proposal.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

Also note that a progress report should be submitted to the Committee before the approval period has expired if a continuation is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).

This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki and the Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes 2004 (Department of Health). Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number REC-050411-032.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research.

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at 0218089183.

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham
REC Coordinator
Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

Investigator Responsibilities

Protection of Human Research Participants

Some of the general responsibilities investigators have when conducting research involving human participants are listed below:

1.Conducting the Research. You are responsible for making sure that the research is conducted according to the REC approved research protocol. You are also responsible for the actions of all your co-investigators and research staff involved with this research. You must also ensure that the research is conducted within the standards of your field of research.

2.Participant Enrollment. You may not recruit or enroll participants prior to the REC approval date or after the expiration date of REC approval. All recruitment materials for any form of media must be approved by the REC prior to their use. If you need to recruit more participants than was noted in your REC approval letter, you must submit an amendment requesting an increase in the number of participants.

3.Informed Consent. You are responsible for obtaining and documenting effective informed consent using **only** the REC-approved consent documents, and for ensuring that no human participants are involved in research prior to obtaining their informed consent. Please give all participants copies of the signed informed consent documents. Keep the originals in your secured research files for at least five (5) years.

4.Continuing Review. The REC must review and approve all REC-approved research proposals at intervals appropriate to the degree of risk but not less than once per year. There is **no grace period.** Prior to the date on which the REC approval of the research expires, **it is your responsibility to submit the continuing review report in a timely fashion to ensure a lapse in REC approval does not occur.** If REC approval of your research lapses, you must stop new participant enrollment, and contact the REC office immediately.

5.Amendments and Changes. If you wish to amend or change any aspect of your research (such as research design, interventions or procedures, number of participants, participant population, informed consent document, instruments, surveys or recruiting material), you must submit the amendment to the REC for review using the current Amendment Form. You **may not initiate** any amendments or changes to your research without first obtaining written REC review and approval. The **only exception** is when it is necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants and the REC should be immediately informed of this necessity.

6.Adverse or Unanticipated Events. Any serious adverse events, participant complaints, and all unanticipated problems that involve risks to participants or others, as well as any research related injuries, occurring at this institution or at other performance sites must be reported to Malene Fouch within **five (5) days** of discovery of the incident. You must also report any instances of serious or continuing problems, or non-compliance with the RECs requirements for protecting human research participants. The only exception to this policy is that the death of a research participant must be reported in accordance with the Stellenbosch Universtiy Research Ethics Committee Standard Operating Procedures. All reportable events should be submitted to the REC using the Serious Adverse Event Report Form.

7.Research Record Keeping. You must keep the following research related records, at a minimum, in a secure location for a minimum of five years: the REC approved research proposal and all amendments; all informed consent documents; recruiting materials; continuing review reports; adverse or unanticipated events; and all correspondence from the REC

8.Provision of Counselling or emergency support. When a dedicated counsellor or psychologist provides support to a participant without prior REC review and approval, to the extent permitted by law, such activities will not be recognised as research nor the data used in support of research. Such cases should be indicated in the progress report or final report.

9.Final reports. When you have completed (no further participant enrollment, interactions, interventions or data analysis) or stopped work on your research, you must submit a Final Report to the REC.

10.On-Site Evaluations, Inspections, or Audits. If you are notified that your research will be reviewed or audited by the sponsor or any other external agency or any internal group, you must inform the REC immediately of the impending audit/evaluation.